THE SOCIAL WORK DIVISION

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EVALUATIVE RESEARCH ON GRASSROOTS COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS: A CASE STUDY OF THE TAI O PROJECT

by

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ABSTRACT

The purposes of the study are: (1) to develop a research plan to evaluate the effectiveness of the Tai O Grassroots Community Development Project; (2) to initiate the implementation of this research plan by (a) collecting baseline data and (b) by conducting a short-term impact study as a first step. The research plan consists of an evaluation framework and a quasi-experimental design. The evaluation framework has four components, namely: input, community development process, output and outcome. Evaluation of effectiveness is to find out whether or not the Tai O Project has caused any significant change in outcome which is measured against the five goals of the project, namely: to promote neighborliness, quality of life, community identity, citizen participation and civic responsibility. In order to control effects of possible intervening variables on the outcome component, a quasi-experimental design is worked out. This design controls the possible intervening variables by using two similar but geographically distinct sections of the community to be the control and experimental groups respectively. The external intervening variables are controlled by the method of longitudinal measurements. Data on outcome variables are collected from proportionate stratified samples through personal interviews with structured interviewing schedules. Chi square tests at the 0.05 level of significance are utilized to test for significant changes. The findings of the study showed that the control and experimental groups were well matched in terms of sex, educational attainment, age, marital status,

employment status, family type, family income and years of residence. The baseline measurement also showed that the two groups were similar in terms of all indicators used to measure outcome. The quasi-experimental design thus succeeded in controlling intervening variables that might have effect on the outcome. When the second measurement was compared to the baseline measurement, it was found that both control and experimental groups showed no significant difference in terms of all indicators used to measure outcome. It can therefore be concluded that the Tai O Grassroots Community Development Project, at its initial period of implementation, was not effective as far as the above-mentioned five goals were concerned.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The significance of evaluative research for community development projects

In the early years when community development projects were funded mainly by overseas resources, agencies usually employed general evaluation procedures for their programmes. Such general evaluation procedures are now increasingly considered inadequate. This is mainly due to the growing reliance of community development projects on funding from public revenue. The role of public revenue would be more significant when considering that the Hong Kong Government has identified a demand of ninety-seven community development projects for the years until 1982/1983 as against the eighteen projects actually subvented in the financial year 1978/1979.[1] It is obvious that when most money is from the public purse, the demand for proof of the value of each dollar spent is mounting. This point is made very clear in the White Paper on Social Welfare Development in Hong Kong:

> Subvention to social welfare voluntary agencies by the Government have been increasing in recent years at a mean rate of between twenty and twenty-five per cent a year. This increasing financial contribution to the voluntary sector makes it the more important to provide a means of ensuring to the satisfaction of the Government, as custodian of

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[1]Hong Kong Government, The Five Year Plan for Social Welfare Development in Hong Kong-Review 1978 (Hong Kong: Government Printer, 1978).

> the public purse, and to the satisfaction of the public, as taxpayers, that the money is well spent.[2]

Evaluative research seems to be the best means to establish proof of the impact of community development projects, and the data collected would therefore be more confidently used to assess the worthiness of these projects. Unfortunately, so far there are only very few attempts to apply evaluative research to community development projects, and their contribution to developing a sound theorectical and methodological framework is not significant.[3] The present study is another attempt to narrow this knowledge gap.

Purposes of the study

Specifically, the purposes of this study are:

(1) to develop a research plan to evaluate the effectiveness of the Tai O Grassroots Community Development Project;

(2) to initiate the implementation of this research plan by a) collecting baseline data and b) by conducting a short-term impact study as a first step.

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[2] Hong Kong Government, Social Welfare in Hong Kong: The Way Ahead (Hong Kong: Government Printer, 1973), p. 25.

[3] A review of the evaluative research studies on community development projects in Hong Kong is given in Chapter III.

CHAPTER II

DEFINITION AND MODELS OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

A working definition for community development

Students of community development are often confused by the numerous definitions on the concept.[4] Here, rather than going through the lengthy process of reviewing the different definitions, it seems more helpful to consult those used by social welfare agencies in Hong Kong or those related to Hong Kong, for these definitions are believed to have a greater impact on community development practices here.

Since Hong Kong is a British Colony, we may as well start with one that has something to do with colonialism. Community development was formally introduced by the United Kingdom Colonial Administration to its colonies in as early as the 1940s. It was then used to help colonial subjects "to be aware of, to understand, and take part in, and ultimately to control the economic and social changes which are taking place among

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[4]For a discussion on different definitions of community development, see Peter du Sautoy, The Organization of a Community Development Programme (London: Oxford U. Press, 1962), pp. 121-129; and William W. Biddle and Loureide J. Biddle, The Community Development Process (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965), pp.282-283.

them."[5] After the Second World War, when most colonies were moving fast toward independence, community development was given a new meaning. The 1954 Ashridge Conference on Social Development gave community development the following definition: "Community development is a movement designed to promote better living for the whole economy with the active participation and on the initiative of the community."[6]

Two years later in 1956, the United Nations offered the now often quoted definition on community development: "The process by which the efforts of the people themselves are united with those governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities, to integrate these communities into the life of the nation, and to enable them to contribute fully to the national program."[7] So far, the United Nations has been very active in promoting community development in rural areas of developing countries. Its interest in urban community development is only a recent phenomenon; but perhaps it is this new interest that has stimulated urban community development practices in Hong Kong.

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[5]Secretary of State's Advisory Committee of Education, Mass Education in African Society (United Kingdom, 1944). Quoted in Community Development, A Handbook, Study Conference on Community Development held at Hartwell House, Aylestury, Buckinghamshire, September, 1957 (London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1957), p. 1.

[6]Ibid., p. 2.

[7]United Nations, Twentieth Report of the Administrative Committee on Coordination to the United Nations Economic & Social Council, Official Records of the 24th Session, Annex III, Agenda item 4, E/2931 (New York: United Nations, 1956), p. 14.

In 1964, there was the Workshop on Professional Education for Urban Community Development sponsored jointly by the United Nations and the Social Welfare Department, Hong Kong Government. Community development was then formally given its first local meaning. Since Hong Kong had little experience in urban community development, the Workshop chose to interpret community development in a very broad sense and defined it as a process which "involves the provisions of a wide variety of services and their coordination, e.g. planning, education, housing, etc. It is a means to implement social and economic planning utilizing the initiative and participation of the people concerned."[8]

Shortly after the Workshop, a number of significant events took place in Hong Kong, and the most far reaching of them being the 1966 Kowloon disturbances. Inquiry into these disturbances revealed a "failure of communication" between the government and the people, one which has since been considered a major obstacle in the building of a happy community.[9] In this sense, community development as defined by the United Nations threw new light on the situation in Hong Kong. In 1966, a Community Development Committee was established within the Hong Kong Council of Social Service, which is the coordinating body for voluntary welfare agencies in Hong Kong and had 118 member agencies at March 31, 1978.[10] This newly formed

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[8]Hong Kong Government, Social Welfare Department, "Report of the Workshop on Professional Education for Urban Community Development, June 8-12, 1964," p. 5. (Mimeographed.)

[9]Kowloon Disturbances 1966, Report of the Commission of Inquiry (Hong Kong: Government Printer: 1967).

[10]Hong Kong Council of Social Service, "Annual Report, 1977/1978."

Committee endorsed the United Nations' definition of community development, word by word, for its own use.[11]

Going into the 1970s, when urban community development gained diversity both in theoretical and methodological orientations, the Community Development Committee became dissatisfied with the United Nations definition. A brief review of recent years' developments will help to clarify this point. First, the Sau Mau Ping Community Development Project sponsored by Social Welfare Department, Hong Kong Government and Social Work Department of the University of Hong Kong approached the target community without a set of well planned and well provisioned programmes.[12] The significance of this approach was that the project chose to work through grassroots residents and not through established leaders, and organized residents within one block through self-help and mutual help programmes. Then in 1970, Caritas-Hong Kong, a voluntary welfare organization, started another similar project in Tung Tau Estate, which was a public housing estate of over fifteen years old.[13] This project also invested heavy staff manpower in establishing relationship with grassroots residents through home visits, and organized them through similar strategies, except that this project began to experiment with the contest strategy. The community workers helped residents to get organized to negotiate with authorities concerned over issues on deteriorating living environment.

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[11]Peter Hodge, "First Report on Community Development Committee of Hong Kong Council of Social Service," Community Development Resource Book (1972), p.79

[12]G.C.P. Riches, Community Development in Hong Kong: Sau Mau Ping, A Case Study (Hong Kong: Centre of Asian Studies, U. of Hong Kong, 1973).

[13]Caritas-Hong Kong, "Reports on Tung Tau Project, 1972-1973." (Mimeographed.

Closely following the experimentation of the Tung Tau Project with the contest strategy were a number of issue-oriented projects launched by the then newly formed Society for Community Organization, also a voluntary welfare organization.[14] Some social workers began to believe that rather than taking integration of the efforts of the government and people as a golden principle, there might be situations where residents' pressure groups could be functional in urban political life.[15]

The new developments in urban community development practices in Hong Kong had therefore rendered the United Nations' definition less convincing to social workers. A new definition was finally suggested in the 1976 Position Paper on Community Development prepared by the Community Development Committee, representing the views of both government and voluntary agencies: "Community development can be defined ... as a process of raising social consciousness whereby people are encouraged through collective participation to identify, express and act on their needs. It is a community oriented social work approach concerned with changes in people's attitudes, social relationships and social conditions."[16]

This working definition on community development by the Position Paper is adopted by the present study. The reasons are: (1) it can identify the

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[14] Society for Community Organization, "Annual Report, April 1977/ March 1978." (Mimeographed.)

[15] 黃燕玲, "從社區發展角度看各類居民組織," 草根 Grassroots (七八年十二月): 9-10.

[16] Hong Kong Council of Social Service, Community Development Committee, "Position Paper on Community Development, 1976." (Mimeographed.)

common elements of the different approaches; (2) since this definition has been accepted in Hong Kong social welfare circles, the use of this definition for the evaluation exercise will make the evaluation findings more easily understood by local practitioners, an advantage which should not be overlooked.

The models of community development

The different orientations toward community development, as suggested by Kramer,[17] are mainly due to different conceptions of the competing goals within community development ideology, which are task/process, educational/political, individual/social. Because of these competing goals, it is less convincing to conceive of only one practice model of the community development process. Rather, the idea of multi-practice models will have two advantages: "an increased possibility for evaluation and a greater degree of congruence between ideology and practice."[18] Similarly Kahn suggests that "perhaps it is more realistic to think in terms of several kinds of community organization agencies or structures with different values and objectives."[19]

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[17]Ralph M. Kramer, "The Influence of Sponsorship, Professionalism and the Civic Culture on the Theory and Practice of Community Development," in Readings in Community Organization Practice, ed. Ralph M. Kramer and Harry Specht, 2nd ed. (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1975), pp. 176-195.

[18]Ibid., p.192.

[19]Alfred J. Kahn, "Social Science and the Conceptual Framework for Community Organization Research," in Social Science Theory and Social Work Research, ed. Leonard Kogan (New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1960), p.79.

In early years, there were already several efforts to formulate various types of community development models. Ross, for example, in 1955 suggested three forms of community development: external implantation, multiple impact, and inner resources.[20] Rothman, in 1968, gave a more elaborate scheme and suggested three distinct modes of community interaction.[21] According to him, there are three models of community organization practice, namely, locality development, social planning and social action. Twelve key variables are used in the construction of the models. They are: total categories of community action, assumptions concerning community structure and problem conditions, basic change strategy, characteristic change tactics and techniques, salient practitioner roles, medium of change, orientation toward power structure(s), boundary definition of the community client system or constituency, assumptions regarding interests of community sub-parts, conception of the public interest, conception of the client population or constituency, conception of client role.

About one year later, Spergel suggested two approaches to organizing local communities: the social stability approach and social change approach. Spergel assumes that these two major purposeful approaches to community problem solving are "generally necessary for the positive development of

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[20]Murray G. Ross, Community Organization: Theory, Principles and Practice, 2nd ed. (New York: Harper & Ross, 1967), pp. 7-17.

[21]Jack Rothman, "Three Models of Community Organization Practice," in Strategies of Community Organization: A Book of Readings, eds. Fred M. Cos, J. L. Erlick, J. Rothman and J. E. Tropman (Illinois: Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1970), pp. 20-36.

community life and the continued viability of a demoractic society."[22] In the social stability approach, an interpersonal orientation is emphasized, in which the intervention is to "initiate a set of attitudes and activities by which members or representatives of a local community seek to identify, and to take action to solve, community problems."[23] Whereas in the social change approach, specific issues and policies are often focused and changes are demanded by people's organization.

The above examples on the efforts to design various types of community development practice models have all suggested discrete model entities. These models, however, do not seem to be in congruence with field experiences. To tackle this problem, this author agrees with Kramer's suggestion to "separate out and define as ideal types the basic forms of community development in terms of major practice variables, then to test these definitional propositions to see if in reality they cluster together in the predicted fashion."

From experience and most indigenous materials, it can be found that community development projects may pursue various combinations of competing goals and strategies at different times of implementation. The present study proposes two ideal types of community development practice, which are conceived of as two extreme ends of a continuum. Along this continuum

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[22]Irving A. Spergel, Community Problem Solving: The Delinquency Example (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1969), p.303.

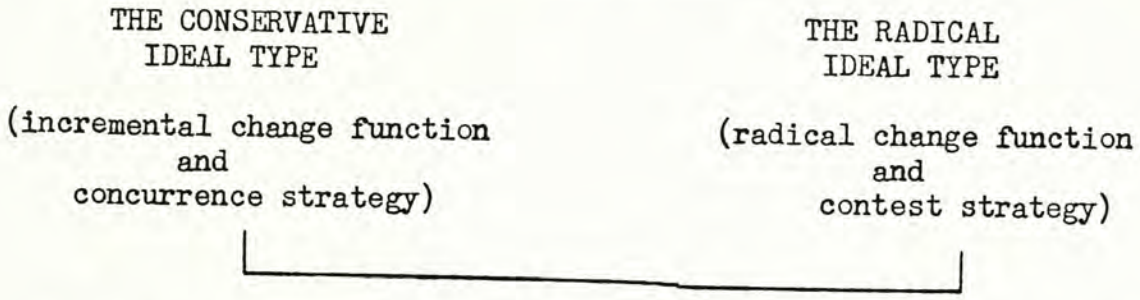
[23]Ibid., p. 131.

[24]Ralph M. Kramer, ibid., p.193.

various community development projects, or a community development project at different times of implementation, can be classified according to the conceptions of two key variables: change functions and strategies of community development. The deviation of community development projects from these ideal types will be dependent upon a number of internal and external factors. Figure II-1 gives a diagrammatic description of the ideal types and the continuum.

FIGURE II-1

Ideal Types of Community Development Practice



The two key variables used in the construction of the ideal types are elaborated below:

(1) the change functions of community development:

Considering the impact on social systems, community development projects can be classified along a change functions continuum with incremental change and radical change functions on respective ends. The incremental change function means restoring, maintaining, or promoting community integration and solidarity. It assumes that when the harmonious state is reached, development and prosperity for each and every member would be followed. This change function will place emphasis on the modification of the values and attitudes of people along the direction of mutual concern, mutual help, local initiatives, and community problem solving abilities.

The radical change function means basic structural changes in a society. It places emphasis on the redistribution of resources, symbolic or material (such as power, status, opportunities, economic benefits), guided by the equalitarian values. It assumes that basic structural changes will result in changes in community inter-group or intra-group relations, and changes in values and attitudes.

(2) the strategies of community development:

The use of strategy is to get another individual, or groups of people, or organizations to do what is desired. Generally speaking, most strategies can be classified on different points of a continuum according to the degree of coercion involved to compromise the differences in values and interests. Coercive power in community development strategies may be real, perceived, or expressed in terms of the access to power available.[25]

At one extreme of the continuum is the concurrence strategy.[26] It is used when there is complete value and interest consensus on the nature of, and solutions to, a problem situation. Techniques which emphasise rational discussion or moral persuasion are used. Examples are group discussions and workshops.

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[25] See also Arthur Blum, M. Miranda and M. Meyer, "Goals and Means for Social Change," in Strategies of Community Organization: A Book of Readings, eds. F.M. Cox, J.L. Erlich, J. Rothman and J.E. Tropman (Illinois: Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1970), p.353.

[26] This term is borrowed from A. Blum, M. Miranda and M. Meyer, ibid., p.353.

At the opposite end is the contest strategy. It is used when there is no possibility of arriving at any degree of compromise in the value or interest differences, and one party decides to act unilaterally to overide the will of other party(ies). Open confrontation techniques such as protests, sit-ins, strikes are often used.

In between the two extreme ends, there are strategies with varying degrees of coercive power and compromises over differences in values and interests. Examples are bargaining, negotiation and public campaigns. In the course to bring about the desired changes different strategies may be used. Thus a project may start with the concurrence strategy but later may shift to campaigns or negotiations. However there seems to be a limit to the range of strategies usuable by any particular project, dependent upon the external and internal factors.

The Ideal Types

Observations show that there is a high correlation between the incremental change function and concurrence strategy, radical change function and contest strategy. This high correlation is used to construct two ideal types of community development practice, to be placed on two extreme ends of a continuum. At one extreme end is the conservative ideal type aiming at incremental change function and using the concurrence strategy. At the opposite end is the radical ideal type aiming at radical change function and using the contest strategy. In actual practice, community development projects may be found moving from one point to another along the continuum at different times of implementation.

The Use of Ideal Types in Evaluation

Evaluation generally has to serve the purposes of administrators and programme staff. The administrators are usually more anxious to know the conclusion or the worthiness of a project, whereas programme staff are equally concerned with programme development. Programme staff, therefore, would consider documentation and recording of the community development process an important part of evaluative research reports.

In order to document and record a process as diversified and as abstract as the community development process, certain degree of theorizing is required. Otherwise, voluminous and indigestible material on the details of staff activities would alienate most readers and render the evaluative study useless. It is in this case that the construction of ideal types would be most useful. As a kind of theory building, the ideal types would help identify the most important variables that discriminate differences among various practices. It records those aspects of the community development process most concerned by programme staff for programme development or revision.

Evaluative research also has a role to play in the building of local indigenous theories, although this role is seldom mentioned. The ideal types suggested in this study are attempts along this direction. Due to practical resources limitations, this study has not tested the validity of the ideal types. It is, however, hoped that when the findings are communicated to other similar studies, they could be used to refine or develop better theories.

It should be pointed out that such ideal type construction may have biases. Because it has not been tested empirically, the level of confidence of its explanatory power would be rather low. Weak theories on ideal types would create stereotypes among practitioners rather than generating insights in social phenomena. Readers should bear these limitations in mind when using the ideal type constructs.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF EVALUATIVE STUDIES ON COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN HONG KONG

The Meaning of Evaluative Research

Evaluation, broadly speaking, refers to the process of assessing the effectiveness and efficiency of an intervention. Efficiency is a measure of output over input, or the amount of output for a given input. Effectiveness is a measure of the relationship between output and objectives of the intervention. It is a measure of the extent to which output achieves objectives.

Evaluation and evaluative research are different. According to Suchman, evaluation is the "social process of making judgements of worth.... While it (the process) implies some logical or rational basis for making such judgements, it does not require any systematic procedures for marshaling and presenting objective evidence to support the judgement."[27] Evaluative research, on the other hand, is "restricted to the utilization of scientific research methods and techniques for the purpose of making an evaluation,"

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[27]Edward A. Suchman, Evaluative Research (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1967), p. 7.

and "refers to those procedures for collecting and analyzing data which increase the possibility for 'proving' rather than 'asserting' the worth of some social activity."[28]

Evaluative research is not the same as research designs. The following significant ingredients of evaluative research can be identified: (1) the independent and dependent variables of evaluative research are determined by the administrators, not by the evaluator; (2) the target population for a program and sometimes the sample for the evaluation itself are predetermined by the policy of the program; (3) reports of evaluative research are addressed to a different audience than is customary for social research.[29] Whatsoever, there are no differences, for the most part, in the logic, methods and techniques employed.

The Hong Kong Experience

The application of evaluative research by welfare agencies in Hong Kong is only a recent phenomenon. In 1973, shortly after the publication of the White Paper on Social Welfare Development in Hong Kong,[30] the Social Welfare Department of the Hong Kong Government and the Hong Kong Council

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[28] Ibid., p. 8.

[29] Peter H. Rossi and Sonia R. Wright, "Evaluative Research: An Assessment of Theory, Practice, and Politics," Evaluation Quarterly (February 1977): 5-52.

[30] Hong Kong Government, Social Welfare in Hong Kong: The Way Ahead (Hong Kong: Government Printer, 1973).

of Social Service conducted a pilot project to assess the various issues involved in the evaluation of welfare agencies. This pilot project was to prepare for the large scale evaluation exercise to evaluate all ninety statutory and voluntary agencies within a cycle of three years to find out: (1) whether social welfare programmes have returned the value for the money from tax payers; (2) whether agency objectives meet the needs of the public.[31] The pilot project chose six agencies as their sample, representing both statutory and welfare agencies with different size and nature. However the evaluation exercise came to a halt after the completion of the pilot project. So far no formal report on the findings of the project is available for public comment. The major difficulty confronting the pilot study was perhaps due to the failure to find acceptable solutions to the following problems: (1) the setting of criteria for the choice of evaluators, (2) the lack of commonly accepted principles and guidelines for evaluation.[32]

Perhaps it was the frustrating experience of the pilot project that stimulated social work administrators to pay more attention to the various components and issues of evaluation. In May 1975, a seminar on Social Programme Evaluation was held. In that seminar, three types of evaluation, namely, effort, efficiency and effectiveness were introduced.

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[31] M. C. Morgan, "Evaluation of Social Welfare Agencies," 社联季刊 (一九七五年秋季): 1-3

[32] 雷黄若蓮，"对評估楊震服務中心的观感，" 社联季刊 (一九七五年秋季): 7
吳夢珍，"对評估社联工作经过的感想，" 社联季刊 (一九七五年秋季): 8-9

The seminar was followed by group discussions, four of which concentrated on community work services. The four groups discussed the feasibility of applying the three types of evaluation to community work services. The general feeling was that there should be some prerequisites for such types of evaluation: (1) clearly defined guidelines and objectives, (2) to settle the dilemma of "for whom are we evaluating, the clients or the donors?"[33] In other words, community workers were frustrated with the lack of objective and commonly accepted measuring tools as well as political implications of the evaluation exercise.

Attempts to tackle such problems are scanty in Hong Kong. So far there is only one evaluative research on community development, which had its own full time evaluation staff to develop a methodological and analytical framework. That is the Tse Wan San Urban Community Development Project.[34] Before that there were two research projects on community development which are worth mentioning here.

G. P. C. Riches' Research

In Hong Kong, the earliest research on community development was the one conducted by G. P. C. Riches in 1973 to "assess the extent to which community

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[33]Hong Kong Council of Social Service, "Seminar on Social Programme Evaluation, May 1975," p. 49. (Mimeographed.)

[34]Hong Kong Government, Social Welfare Department, "Tse Wan San Urban Community Development Project," Draft report, Dec. 1977. (Mimeographed.)

centre practice measures up to the stated policies of community centres (Hong Kong and Singapore) and to internationally accepted aims of community development."[35] He developed the following process variables of community development as yardsticks to measure the effectiveness of community centres: (a) participation, (b) self-help projects/services based on people's own needs, (c) decision-making (by whom), (d) leadership, (e) viable structure/organizations, (f) sense of local belonging or national identity, and (g) provision of material and technical resources.

Riches collected his data by the following methods: (1) from secondary data such as government reports and other relevant reports and articles, (2) to collect basic information concerning various aspect of community centre work through administering simple questionnaire to officer-in-charge of the centres.

T. C. Chan's Research

Another similar study was conducted by T. C. Chan in 1976, but it addressed another approach of urban community development. Some of his purposes were to evaluate the "effectiveness of the community development projects in relation to program inputs, community development work process and outcome activities of the projects."[36] His study covered ten grassroots

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[35] G. C. P. Riches, Urban Community Centres and Community Development, Hong Kong & Singapore (Hong Kong: Centre of Asian Studies, U. of Hong Kong, 1973), p. 10.

[36] T. C. Chan, "Community Development in Hong Kong Housing Estates: A Program Evaluation of the Work of Voluntary Organizations " (Master of Science Thesis, Asian Institute of Technology, 1976), p. 2.

community development projects operated by six voluntary agencies in ten Group B Estates, a kind of public housing estate. Chan developed his own analytical framework (see Figure III-1).[37]

To collect data for different types of evaluation, Chan employed various methods. In relation to the measurement of effectiveness, he adopted a survey method, administering formal questionnaires through interviewers to participants and non-participants. Participants were selected by community workers, and non-participants were chosen by stratified random sampling method from the estates. For each project, there were ten participants and ten non-participant respondents.

A Critique of the Data Collection Method of Riches' and Chan's Research Studies

The methods of data collection of the two research studies are open to a number of possible biases. The most significant possible bias is the bias introduced by community workers concerned. Since in both studies, the community workers could easily introduce their biases in the supply of information about community centre functioning, and, for Chan's study, the choice of the experimental group. Chan's study is also confronted by another problem. His control group was drawn from the entire population of the estates, therefore subjects of the experimental group also had a possibility of being included into the control group. This methodological weakness will render the proof of the causal relationship between the independent and dependent variables less convincing.

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[37] Ibid., p. 24.

The Tse Wan San Urban Community Development Project

This project had incorporated a rather sophisticated system of evaluation. The data for evaluation were collected primarily from project staff's recordings and residents' feedback. In order to assess the impact of the project on the community, a quasi-experimental survey design was adopted. The evaluation staff chose two blocks with similar history, and then assigned one to be the experimental group and the other the control group. (It is not known whether the two blocks were assigned randomly, and what the other reasons were for the choice of the two blocks.) An experimental sample and a control sample were selected by the method of stratified random sampling method, and data were collected by structured questionnaires administered through personal interviews.

The project identified two major components in its evaluation framework: input and output. These two components were further broken down into several variables as follows:

(A) Input : (i) manpower; (ii) family contacts; (iii) duration of programme implementation; (iv) working strategies for promoting leadership ability, ability in self-help, ability in use of community resources and sense of community identity.

(B) Output : (i) frequency of residents' meetings; (ii) committees formed; (iii) number of functions held; (iv) achievements in promoting leadership ability, ability in self-help, ability in use of community resources and sense of community

identity.[38]

Discussions on the validity of these variables need to be related to the objectives of the project, which are as follows:

(1) to provide experimental intensive community work services in a housing estate;

(2) to test both the existing and innovative approaches in urban community work;

(3) to help in establishing community groups among the residents of housing estates;

(4) to evaluate the project after a period of three years so that its findings can be used for on-going and future planning;

(5) to provide field work placements for social work students as a contribution to the training of community workers;

(6) to increase the sense of identity of people within Tse Wan San locality through their own involvement in the improvement of the quality of their lives;

(7) to establish a system for evaluation of effectiveness and impact of community development programme in relation to input and output; and

(8) to evaluate whether the existing manpower of five programme staff with a period of three years would be able to serve adequately a target population of 35,000.[39]

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[38]Hong Kong Government, Social Welfare Department, ibid., p. 53.

[39]Ibid., p. 6.

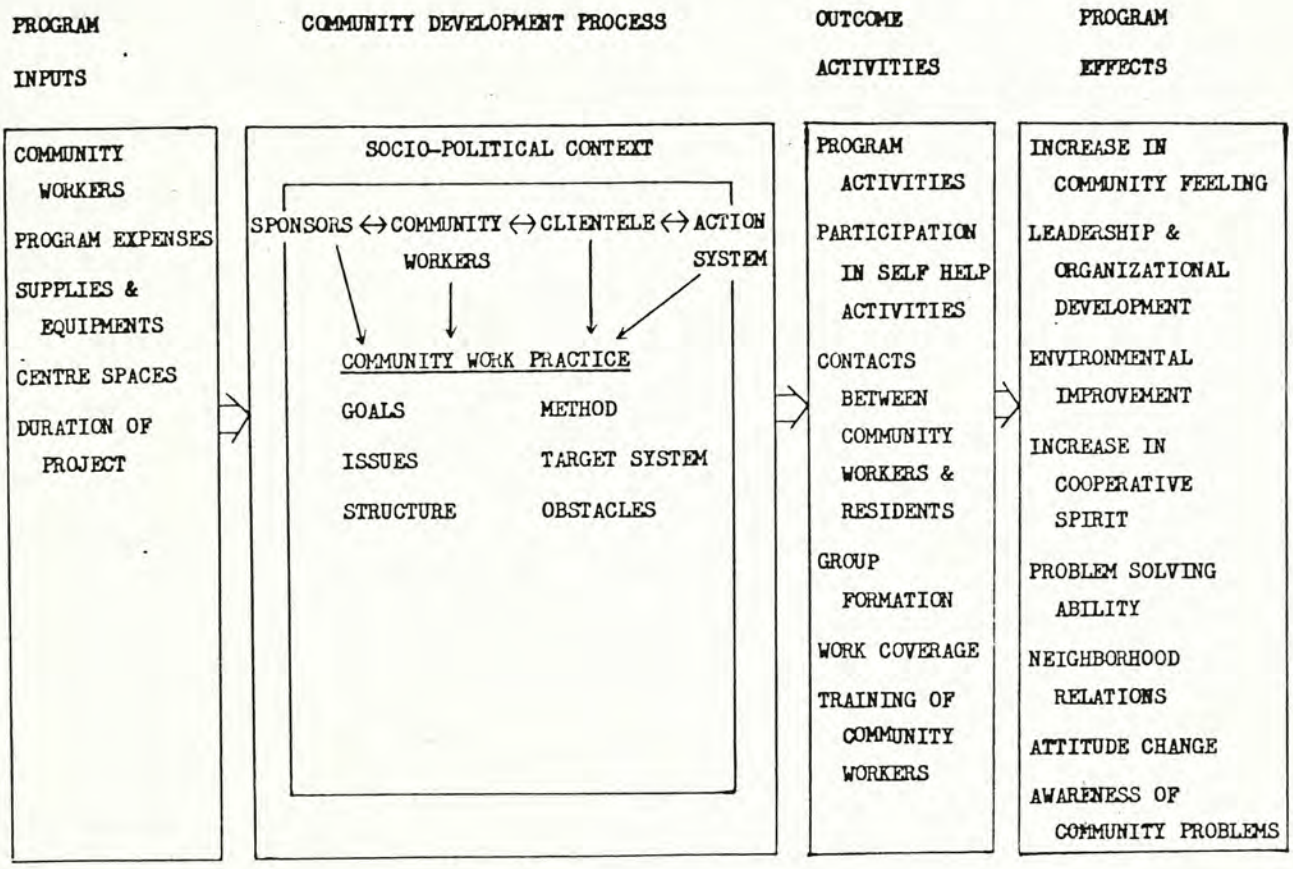
It seems that the project has two broad categories of objectives: those related to achieving the aims of community development, and those related specifically to the uniqueness of the project. Descriptions for the latter objective category are clearer and more specific, but are much less so for the first category. This shows that the project has not stated clearly what changes in the community it wants to see.

The apparently unclear description of the aims of community development for the project is perhaps due to the mixing up of the output and outcome variables into one category. To measure the effectiveness of a community development project is basically the measurement of the changes in a community, to find out to what extent the changes measured up to the aims of community development as defined in the project. Since only objectives (3) and (6) listed above describe the changes desired in a community, the criterion variables thus developed would become less valid and useful. For example one can challenge the use of 'leadership ability' and 'ability in self-help' criteria as criteria to measure the effectiveness of the project since these have not been indicated explicitly in the objectives. Furthermore the mixing up of the output and outcome measurements seems to suggest the assumption that number of functions held and number of committees formed are yardsticks to measure the effectiveness of the project. However such an assumption is highly invalid and not acceptable to most social work practitioners.

This chapter has touched upon the various efforts in Hong Kong to evaluate and study the impact of community development on a community, and has briefly pointed out some of their possible biases. It has revealed that

there is still much room for improvement in evaluative research for community development projects in Hong Kong. The present study attempts to contribute to bridging this knowledge gap.

FIGURE III-1. T. C. CHAN'S ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK



CHAPTER IV

THE RESEARCH PLAN: A QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

The Choice of the Tai O Project

The choice of a community development project for the present exercise was determined by the following factors:

(1) the availability of new community development projects at the time of the exercise, which was determined by the university calendar for the master of social work programme;

(2) the Tai O Project has already been included in the subvention priority list of the Social Welfare Department of the Hong Kong Government, thus there is a high possibility for the input variable of the project to reach the commonly accepted standard described in the following chapter;

(3) the project was supervised by a university graduate with a master of social work degree and three years of relevant working experience, thus the quality of the service could be controlled;

(4) descriptions on the Tai O community in the next section will show that it is rather typical of those rural communities (or traditional communities) which are about to face drastic transformations due to rapid land development. It is therefore hoped that the exercise will throw insights on community development projects operating in other similar communities.

The Tai O Community: A General Description

Until recently, Tai O had been famous for being one of the largest fishing ports in Hong Kong. (The other three are Aberdeen, Cheung Chau and Shau Kei Wan.) Situated in the southern tip of Tai Yu Shan, the largest island of Hong Kong, it has a very old history and had been isolated from the rest of Hong Kong for many years because of its remoteness and the inconvenience of public transport. In 1977, the Hong Kong Government announced a large scale development plan for Tai Yu Shan, aiming at transforming the whole island into resort and industrial areas. Before that, public works have already been started for a few years to link large communities of the island by highways. Urbanization in Tai O, however, took place even earlier. Now city dwellers will be surprised to find that Tai O is no longer the old fishing port tied by close kinship and traditional norms. It is best to describe it as a community in fast transition, and the people there are now experiencing the "pains" of this process.

Population

The total land population of the Tai O community was 5,560 in 1976 with slightly more females than males (see Table IV-1). About 92% of the population were born in Hong Kong (see Table IV-2), an important indicator showing the long history of the community.

TABLE IV-1

TAI O COMMUNITY: SEX DISTRIBUTION OF THE LAND POPULATION

	(No.)	(%)
Female	2,900	55.4
Male	2,330	44.6
Total	5,230	100.0

Source: 1976 Land Bi-census, conducted by the Census and Statistics Department, Hong Kong Government.

TABLE IV-2

TAI O COMMUNITY: PLACE OF BIRTH

	(No.)	(%)
Hong Kong	4,830	92.4
Others	400	7.6
Total	5,230	100.0

Source: see Table IV-1.

Living Quarters

Table IV-3 showed that about 76.8% of the living quarters belonged to the category of temporary housing. A large number of these temporary houses were concentrated in the squatter areas, which formed the target population of the Tai O Grassroots Community Development Project.

General Education Attainment

Table IV-4 showed that about 95% of the population had primary or below levels of educational attainments. This phenomenon might be explained

by the following reasons: (1) the lack of enough secondary schools, (2) children's schooling is not considered important by the boat people, who rather prefer their children assisting them in income generating activities.

TABLE IV-3

TAI O COMMUNITY: LIVING QUARTERS

	No. of Households	% of total Households
Private Housing Block	170	17.2
Village Type House	60	6.0
Temporary Housing	760	76.8
Total	990	100.0

Source: see Table IV-1.

TABLE IV-4

TAI O COMMUNITY: GENERAL EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

	(No.)	(%)
No schooling/kintergarten	2,720	52.0
Primary	2,240	42.8
Others	270	5.2
Total	5,230	100.0

Source: see Table IV-1.

Community Problems

The following problems were mentioned by the Tai O Study conducted by Social Welfare Department of the Hong Kong Government: (i) inadequate supply of running water, (ii) inconvenient public transport, (iii) lack of sufficient recreational and sports facilities, (iv) lack of formal secondary schools leading to certificate courses, (v) poor housing and environmental hygiene.[40]

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[40] 九龍社, "大澳輯錄, 1976," (油麻地社區及青年事務處贊助, 社會福利署青年實踐計劃資助。)

General Considerations for the Evaluative Research Design

The use of evaluative research designs, as mentioned in Chapter III, is to prove whether or not there is a causal relationship between the dependent and independent variables, or in the present study, to find out whether or not the Tai O Project has caused any significant changes in outcome which is measured against the project goals. To do so evaluative research designs have to be able to control other factors that may have effects on the dependent variable; these other factors are referred to as intervening variables.

In laboratory experiments, a number of models have been suggested to control biases and intervening variables.[41] A typical design is one which compares a control group with an experimental group. Subjects of a population under study are assigned randomly to either the control or the experimental groups. Random assignment of subjects to the two groups is to ensure that each subject has the same chance of receiving the treatment of the independent variable, so as to eliminate the researcher's and the subjects' personal biases. It is also assumed that randomization "produces two groups fairly evenly matched not only on factors known but also on factors the researcher may not know about."[42] After the independent variable is administered to the experimental group, the differences of the two groups are studied. If the

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[41] See Samuel Finestone and Alfred J. Kahn, "The Design of Research," in Social Work Research: Methods for the Helping Profession, ed. Norman A. Polansky (Chicago: U. of Chicago Press, 1975), pp. 39-67.

differences are significant, we can confidently conclude that the differences are caused by the independent variable.

This model, of course, only gives the basic logic of research designs, and is not the kind of model that can control all possible biases. For instance, it cannot control the biases derived from the subjects' involvement in the experiment. The Hawthorne experiment had one such striking experience where the subjects' involvement was the most significant causal factor.[43] Moreover there are also practical and ethical considerations in the design of a model. These problems are even more controversial in action research programmes. Most administrators and practitioners may not, for practical and ethical reasons, consider randomization of subjects to form two groups as acceptable techniques in a research design. A successful research design, therefore, depends very much on a skillful and creative adaptation of the basic logics of research design to field situations. This again highly depends on the designer's experience, his knowledge and understanding about his subject, and his insights in relevant factors affecting his study.

Evaluative research designs employ similar logics and methods. However, practical and ethical considerations seem to weigh even heavier in the choice of a reasonable design. Considering the present evaluative research on the Tai O Grassroots Community Development Project, it will require a research design which can control a number of significant external (i.e.

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[43]George Caspar Homans, "Group Factors in Work Productivity," in Sociological Research I: A Case Approach, ed. Matilda White Riley (New York: Harcourt, 1963.)

not associated with the subjects of the evaluative research) and internal (i.e. associated with the subjects of the evaluative research) intervening variables. The possible external intervening variables are:

(1) Social programmes organized by other voluntary agencies and the government: The New Territories District Office, a government department, has always been active in assisting the Rural Committee of the Tai O community. The Rural Committee is a local organization whose major functions are to represent local people to liase with the government and to promote the welfare of the community, including also physical developments of the area. Another local organization actively involved in the improvement of the living environment of the squatters is the Fishermen's Mutual Help Society. Some voluntary welfare agencies from outside are also interested to provide services to the community.

(2) The growing influence of mass media and urbanization may have great impact on the social relationship of the community. It will greatly facilitate our interpretation of the findings if such effects can be controlled.

(3) The plan of the government to redevelop Tai O into a residential and light industrial area.

The following internal intervening variables are identified: sex, age, educational attainment, marital status, employment status, family types, family income and years of residence.

To control these intervening variables, the present study proposes a

quasi-experimental design.[44] Its basic logic is similar to that of the experimental design, except that subjects are not assigned randomly or according to any criteria manipulable by the evaluator. In the present study, the section which is going to be resettled first is chosen to be the experimental group. Another section situated farthest from the project office site is to be the control group. This kind of matching is based on the assumption that the sections are similar in terms of frequency distributions of selected internal intervening variables. Findings on the actual matching of the two groups are presented in Chapter VI. It is also hoped that this way to choose the control group can minimize contamination effects due to the presence of the office site. External intervening variables are controlled by the use of longitudinal measurements, i.e. a baseline measurement and a second measurement.

Although the quasi-experimental design has a lower power of matching compared to the experimental design, this weakness is compensated by its advantages, which are:

(1) The evaluative research study can be conducted with minimum interfering effects on the real life situations, or on the action programme itself.

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[44]See D. T. Campbell and J. C. Stanley, Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Designs for Research on Teaching (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1966); J. A. Caporaso and L. L. Ross, Jr., Quasi-Experimental Approaches (Evanston: Northwestern U. Press, 1973); and T. D. Cook and D. T. Campbell, "The Design and Conduct of Quasi-experiments and True Experiments in Field Settings," in The Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Research, ed. M. O. Dunnettee (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1974).

It can, to a large extent, be freed from the criticism that laboratory findings may not be relevant to field situations.

(2) It is practical because it does not require reshuffling of the residents in the community, but makes use of the existing natural conditions. Even if such reshuffling was possible, it would create more biases due to the subjects' involvement effects.

(3) It can avoid serious ethical problems. Although in the quasi-experimental design, there is still the problem of declining community development services to one section of a community for a considerable period. This however can be accepted as a reasonable technique of the action programme itself. For due to resource limitations, the programme staff will find it more appropriate to concentrate their efforts on a smaller portion of the total target population in the beginning period and then extend to the rest. Moreover, as community development usually aims at developmental goals, and not to meet immediate pressing needs of the people, such a technique is in fact often employed by community workers.

The Sampling Design

Since there was no significant advantage to interview all respondents from both the experimental and control groups, and because of the limited manpower available, sampling design was used. The method of sampling was proportionate stratified random sampling. The strata were the natural clusters or lanes of the sections. Proportionate stratified random sampling was used because it was believed that clusters and lanes with varying distance from residents focal points such as stores and main roads might have effects on the dependent variables.

Different samples were used for the baseline and second measurements. This was to avoid biases due to subjects' maturity with the measuring tools, particularly when the time duration between the two measurements was not long enough for them to forget about the first interview. Sampling techniques were the same for both measurements except that in the second measurement, the households interviewed in the baseline measurement were excluded.

The unit of enquiry was the household, and the head of the household, or his/her spouse, or the eldest child not younger than eighteen years of age was chosen to be the interviewee. Single person household was excluded from the interviews, but no such case was reported in the field study.

As there was no available list of households, the number of squatter huts was taken as the sampling unit. During the interview, when there was more than one household in a squatter hut, the first household met by the interviewer should be the respondent; again no such case was reported in the field study.

In order to ensure good response rate, two successive interviews were planned. Replacement for non-responses were selected from the hut left to the original sampling unit, and then to the right, and so on.

The choice of a sample size for the present study was dependent upon two factors: (1) the evaluation manpower available, (2) the actual number of the sample size allowable for the use of the chi-square test without giving rise to much weaknesses. The second factor was the main reason for

the increase in sample size in the second measurement. Table IV-5 described the population size and sample size of this study.

TABLE IV-5

POPULATION SIZE AND SAMPLE SIZE OF THE STUDY

(NUMBER OF SQUATTER HUTS)

	Population* Size	Sample Size			
		Baseline Measurement		Second Measurement	
	(No.)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Experimental Section	195	21	10.8	29	14.9
Control Section	184	19	10.3	29	15.8

*Figure gathered from the New Territories Administration, Hong Kong Government in July 1978.

The response rates of the two samples were considered satisfactory. See Table IV-6.

Method of Data Collection

Data were collected through personal interviews with structured questionnaire. Altogether there were twelve interviewers. One was the evaluator; for the rest, eight were trained social workers from the sponsoring agency, one was a social work student, two were welfare assistants with several months of working experience. The interviewers were given a briefing session on the interviewing techniques and other related matters.

TABLE IV-6

RESPONSE RATES

	Control Sample				Experimental Sample			
	Baseline Measurement		Second Measurement		Baseline Measurement		Second Measurement	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Cooperative respondents	17	89.4	26	89.6	19	90.4	27	93.1
Replacements:								
Refusals	1	5.3	—	—	1	4.8	2	6.9
Non-contacts	1	5.3	3	10.4	1	4.8	—	—
All effective respondents	19	100.0	29	100.0	21	100.0	29	100.0

A pilot study was conducted prior to the main survey to test the questionnaire. Altogether five pilot interviews were conducted. Subsequently the questionnaire was revised.

The first survey was conducted in August 1978 just before the actual implementation of the project, and the second survey five months later.

Statistical Analysis of Data

Chi square test was utilized to test the differences between the control and experimental groups. The 0.05 level of significance was used.

Limitation of the Quasi-experimental Design

The bias which warrants special attention may come from the contamination of the control group. As the distance of the control section was not very

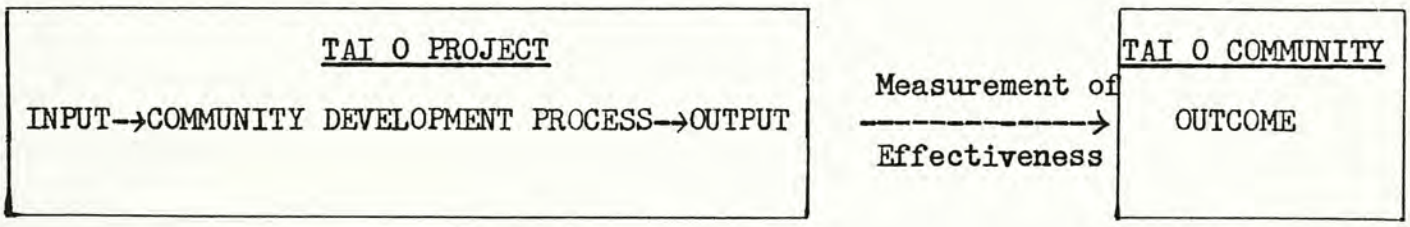
far from the experimental section and as there was practically little possibility to control residents of the control section to participate in community-wide programmes initiated for the experimental section, it was suggested to the project staff to limit publicity of their programme functions to the experimental section only. In spite of these efforts, some residents from the control section had still taken part in a few programme functions. This contamination of the control section may affect the explanatory power of the quasi-experimental design.

CHAPTER V

THE RESEARCH PLAN: THE EVALUATION FRAMEWORK AND A SYSTEM OF CRITERION VARIABLES

The Evaluation Framework

Four key components of the evaluation frameword for grassroots community development projects can be identified: input, community development process, output and outcome. The relationship of these components is depicted by the following diagram:



Input is defined as the total amount of resources, both manpower and material, utilized by the project. The community development process is defined as the process of raising social consciousness whereby people are encouraged through collective participation to identify, express, and act on their needs; it is a community oriented social work approach concerned with changes in people's attitudes, social relationships and social conditions.
Output is defined as the total work done by the community workers.
Outcome is defined as the actual changes in the community measured against the goals of the project.

To evaluate effectiveness is to find out whether or not the Tai O Project has caused any significant changes in outcome; it is a measurement of the extent to which the project achieves the project goals.

The input, community development process and output components of the evaluation framework serve to describe the Tai O Project. These components are believed to be of great concern to administrators and programme staff. As the community development process has been covered in detail in Chapter II, only the other three components will be elaborated below.

The Input Component

The following indicators are used to describe project input : (i) staffing, (ii) programme expenses, (iii) supplies and equipment, (iv) administrative expenses, (v) other resources, (vi) duration of the project. As staffing is the most important item in community development project input, it is further broken down into number and qualification of community workers, and number of supporting staff.

Recently in Hong Kong there is a growing concern among social workers for the standard setting on input for grassroots community development projects. In 1974, a standard input for community development project was

suggested by the Working Party on Priorities of Community Development:[45]

A General Budget for a Community Development Project (annual) for a population of 25,000

Trained staff (graduate)	1
Trained staff (non-graduate)	2
Clerk	1
Programme and other expenses	HK$ 8,000
Rent and rates	HK$10,000

It should be noted that the standard input is uaually meant for the early stages of community development projects. It is generally assumed that when communities are becoming mature, less staffing input would be required.

A brief review of the input of the community development projects of voluntary agencies in Hong Kong in 1977, however, showed that almost no projects met the standard.[46] This was partly due to lack of adequate funds and partly due to shortage of community workers.[47]

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[45]Working Party on Priorities of Community Development, "Position Paper on Priorities of Community Development in Areas of Identified Special Need Requiring more Intensive Service," Community Development Resource Book (1974): 55-57.

[46]Hong Kong Council of Social Service, Community Development Division, "Grassroots Community Development Projects Operated by Member Agencies of the Division as at November 1977." (Mimeographed.)

[47]"Report on the Social Work Manpower Survey," by Joint Hong Kong Council of Social Service-Social Welfare Department Working Group on Social Work Manpower Survey, sponsored by Social Work Training Committee, Hong Kong Council of Social Service, March 1978. (Mimeographed.)

The present evaluation design is intended to include a description of the Tai O Project with regard to funding, staffing, etc.. The purpose of this part of the investigation is simply to see whether the project conformed to the standard input suggested by the Working Party on Priorities of Community Development, since a fair assumption is that sufficient staffing and funding are the prerequisites for a project to achieve its goals.

The Output Component

The following are the indicators measuring output: (i) number of home visits conducted, (ii) number of personal contacts, (iii) number of community studies conducted, (iv) number of functions held, (v) number of groups formed, (vi) number of meetings held with indigenous organizations.

The above indicators cover only the quantitative aspects of the output component. It should therefore be pointed out that they cannot show the quality of the work done, or the degree of complexities of the tasks.

The Outcome Component

Since outcome in this study is referred to the actual changes in a community measured against the goals of a project, there is no attempt here to develop sets of common goals and indicators for all community development projects. Rather, the goals given by administrators are accepted as the dependent variables of the evaluative research. One limitation of

this approach is that goals submitted by administrators are often vague and abstract. To overcome this weakness, this study chose to work with the project staff to develop specific objectives which are believed to have a valid relationship with the goals and are the major concerns of the project staff during the evaluation period.

The goals accompanied by specific objectives for the Tai O Grassroots Community Development Project are given below:

(1) To Promote Neighborliness:

  (i) to enhance residents' mutual understanding and sharing;

  (ii) to increase the frequency of interaction among residents;

  (iii) to promote mutual help activities.

(2) To Promote the Quality of Life:

  (i) to enrich residents' social experiences, in terms of experiencing various types of social activity and social visit;

  (ii) to promote the quality of family life;

  (iii) to promote the quality of other aspects of life: education (formal and non-formal) for the young and adults, leisure activities and living environment.

(3) To Promote Community Identity:

  (i) to promote a positive feeling toward the community;

  (ii) to inculcate a positive attitude toward the community so that they will choose to live in the community.

(4) To Promote Citizen Participation:

  (i) to enrich residents' knowledge of matters vital to facilitate participation in public issues;

(ii) to encourage residents to express their opinion on public issues through various possible means.

(5) To Promote Civic Responsibility:

(i) to promote a responsible attitude toward environmental improvement;

(ii) to promote a responsible attitude toward community organization activities.

(6) To Identify and Develop Community Leadership:

(i) to create viable community structures;

(ii) to enhance the problem solving capacity of the community;

(iii) to improve the leadership skills of the residents' representatives.

(7) To Prepare Residents for Better Adjustments in the forthcoming resettlement to a new environment:

(i) to promote residents' understanding about the positive effects of the change, and about the new environment;

(ii) to help residents to solve common problems arising out of the resettlement through their joint efforts;

(iii) to preserve and promote the neighborliness in the original community.

This study will concentrate its analysis on the first five goals listed above. Goals Six and Seven are excluded because (i) it is believed that measurements on leadership development would best be collected from residents who have taken part in organizing activities, and from social workers' records; and (ii) it is believed that any questions around the resettlement issue may create much anxiety in the community.

Indicators for the first five goals are presented below; these indicators were worked out together with the project staff:

(1) To Promote Neighborliness:

(i) proportion of residents in the section known to the respondent;

(ii) proportion of families in the section visited by the respondent;

(iii) sharing of family plans, problems and happy events with neighbors;

(iv) frequency of taking part in leisure activities together with neighbors;

(v) frequency of mutual help activities in taking care of children, purchasing daily necessities, monetary assistance, preventive measures against natural calamities, and environmental improvement projects;

(vi) the confidence to rely on neighbors for help when needed.

(2) To Promote the Quality of Life:

(i) knowledge of local recreational facilities

(ii) frequency of taking part in leisure activities;

(iii) perception of the functions of children's leisure activities to their physical and mental development;

(iv) frequency of interaction between family and school;

(v) knowledge of non-formal educational facilities in the community;

(vi) use of non-formal educational facilities;

(vii) expectation on children's educational attainments;

(viii) expectation on children's educational attainments in relation to sex differences;

(ix) perception of community problems;

(x) perception of the change in the quality of living environment;

(xi) frequency of family outings;

(xii) frequency of family discussions;

(xiii) savings for long-term family projects;

(xiv) number of children expected of a young couple;

(xv) perception of the change in the quality of family life.

(3) To Promote Community Identity:

(i) feeling toward being labelled as 'Tai O people';

(ii) choice of a residential community;

(iii) agreeing to the younger generation to establish their families and careers in the Tai O community.

(4) To Promote Citizen Participation:

(i) knowledge of social legislations and government programmes;

(ii) frequency of expressing opinion on public issues to authorities concerned;

(iii) frequency of encouraging neighbors as a group to express their opinion on public issues to authorities concerned;

(iv) frequency of attending local social activities;

(v) membership of indigenous organizations.

(5) To Promote Civic Responsibility:

(i) attitude toward residents' responsibility in keeping the environment clean;

(ii) attitude toward residents' responsibility in taking part as volunteer in, and offering monetary contributions to, community betterment projects;

(iii) dependency on community leaders.

These indicators are used to construct an interviewing schedule to collect residents' responses. See Appendices 1 and 2 for the Chinese and English versions of the interviewing schedule respectively.

In summary, this section attempts to present a theoretical framework of the present evaluative research on the Tai O Grassroots Community Development Project.

CHAPTER VI

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS: MATCHING OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN RELATION TO INTERNAL INTERVENING VARIABLES

This chapter deals with the analysis of the internal intervening variables of the two samples. The following null hypotheses were tested:

(1) that there is no significant difference between the two sample populations in relation to known internal intervening variables;

(2) that there is no significant difference between the respondents of the two samples in relation to known internal intervening variables.

If these null hypotheses cannot be rejected by chi square tests at the 0.05 level of significance, it can be concluded that the internal intervening variables had no effect on the causal relationship between the Tai O Project and the project outcome. Data on these internal intervening variables were collected from the baseline measurement.

Sample Characteristics

(1) Sex distribution of total sample household members:

For both samples, the proportion of male household members (53.8% of the control sample, and 59.3 of the experimental sample) was slightly higher than that of the female household members. There was no significant difference between the two samples in relation

to sex distribution. See Table VI-1.

TABLE VI-1

SEX DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS

	Male		Female		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	86	53.8	74	46.2	160	100.0
Experimental Group	118	59.3	81	40.7	199	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 3.62 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.05 > P > 0.01$

(2) Age distribution of sample household members:

Table VI-2 showed that, for both samples, members were fairly evenly distributed among the four age groups. The chi square test showed that there was no significance at the 0.05 level.

TABLE VI-2

AGE DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS

Age Group	0-14		15-29		30-49		50 & Over		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	49	30.2	38	23.8	39	24.4	34	21.6	160	100.0
Experimental Group	61	30.7	50	25.1	43	21.6	45	22.6	199	100.0

Degree of freedom = 3
Chi square = 0.57
$0.3 > P > 0.5$

(3) Educational attainments of sample household members:

The general educational attainments of both samples were rather low, with majority of the household members (96.2% of the control sample, and 94.5% of the experimental sample) belonged to the primary or below level. There was no significant difference between the two samples in terms of educational attainments. See Table VI-3.

TABLE VI-3

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENTS OF SAMPLE HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS

	No Schooling/ Kintergarden		Primary		Others		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	61	38.1	93	58.1	6	3.8	160	100.0
Experimental Group	81	40.7	107	53.8	11	5.5	199	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 0.98
$0.5 > p > 0.7$

(4) Income distribution of sample households:

84.2% of the households of the control sample earned a total income of HK$1,500 and less; this figure was higher than the 66.7% of the experimental sample. The chi square test, however, showed that the difference was not significant at the 0.05 level. See Table VI-4.

(5) Types of family of sample households:

Table VI-5 showed that, for both samples, only a small portion of the families belonged to the nuclear family type which is defined as a

couple plus unmarried children. Majority of the families (78.1% of the control sample, and 76.2% of the experimental sample) belonged to one of the following categories: (i) vertically extended nuclear family (i.e. a nuclear family plus parents or grandparents) or horizontally extended nuclear family (i.e. a nuclear family plus unmarried siblings of the husband/wife); (ii) two or more nuclear families belong to the same generation; (iii) two or more nuclear families which are horizontally or vertically related to each other. There was no difference between the two samples at the 0.05 level of significance.

TABLE VI-4

INCOME DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS

	Less Than HK$1,001		HK$1,001-1,500		Over HK$1,500		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	11	57.9	5	26.3	3	15.8	19	100.0
Experimental Group	8	38.1	6	28.6	7	33.3	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 2.07
$0.3 > P > 0.5$

TABLE VI-5

TYPES OF FAMILY OF SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS

	Nuclear Family (No.)	(%)	Others* (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	4	21.0	15	79.0	19	100.0
Experimental Group	5	23.8	16	76.2	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.03 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

*These include the following categories: (i) vertically extended nuclear family (i.e. a nuclear family plus parents or grandparents) or horizontally extended nuclear family (i.e. a nuclear family plus unmarried siblings of the husband/wife); (ii) two or more nuclear families belong to the same generation; (iii) two or more nuclear families which are horizontally or vertically related to each other.

Summary

It was shown that there was no difference at the 0.05 level of significance between the two samples in relation to: sex distribution of sample household members, age distribution of sample household members, educational attainments of sample household members, income distribution of sample households and family types of sample households. The two samples therefore matched well in terms of the frequency distributions of those variables just mentioned.

From the data it can also be implied that Tai O was a typical lower class community, with low educational attainments and low household income. The dominant family type also showed that Tai O still maintained some of

the characteristics of Chinese traditional families, i.e. with two or more generations living together, or with married siblings living together.

Respondent Characteristics (Baseline Measurement)

(1) Sex distribution of the respondents:

63.2% of the respondents of the control group were female, whereas it was 76.2% for the experimental group. Although there was a difference between the two groups in terms of female composition, the difference was not found to be significant at the 0.05 level. See Table VI-6. There were more female respondents for both groups because most of the interviews were conducted in the day time when most of the male residents were out at work.

CHAPTER VI-6

SEX DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	MALE (No.)	MALE (%)	FEMALE (No.)	FEMALE (%)	TOTAL (No.)	TOTAL (%)
Control Group	7	36.8	12	63.2	19	100.0
Experimental Group	5	23.8	16	76.2	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.31 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

(2) Age distribution of the respondents:

Table VI-7 showed that, for both groups, majority of the respondents were over 30 years of age (84.1% of the control group, 76.2% of the experimental group.) No significant difference was found between the two samples in relation to age distribution.

TABLE VI-7

AGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

Age Group	18-29 (No.)	18-29 (%)	30-49 (No.)	30-49 (%)	50 & Over (No.)	50 & Over (%)	Total (No.)	Total (%)
Control Group	3	15.8	5	26.3	11	57.9	19	100.0
Experimental Control	5	23.8	7	33.3	9	42.9	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 0.94
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

(3) Educational attainment of the respondents:

Table VI-8 showed that, for both groups, majority of the respondents (79.0% of the control group, 85.7% of the experimental group) had below primary level of education. No significant differences was found between the two groups.

(4) Marital status of the respondents:

Table VI-9 showed that, for both groups, majority of the respondents (79.0% of the control group, 85.7% of the experimental group) were already married. No significant difference was found between the two groups.

TABLE VI-8

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF THE RESPONDENTS
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Below Primary (No.)	(%)	Primary & Over (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	15	79.0	4	21.0	19	100.0
Experimental Group	18	85.7	3	14.3	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi Square = 0.02 (with Yates' Correction)
0.8 > P > 0.9

TABLE VI-9

MARITAL STATUS OF THE RESPONDENTS
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Married (No.)	(%)	Others (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	15	79.0	4	21.0	19	100.0
Experimental Group	18	85.7	3	14.3	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi Square = 0.02 (with Yates' Correction)
0.8 > P > 0.9

(5) Employment status of the respondents:

Table VI-10 showed that, for both groups, about two-thirds of the respondents, housewives included, were unemployed (68.4% of the control group, 66.7% of the experimental group). No significant difference was found between the two groups.

TABLE VI-10

EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF THE RESPONDENTS
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Unemployed* (No.)	(%)	Employed (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	13	68.4	6	31.6	19	100.0
Experimental Group	14	66.7	7	33.3	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.05 (with Yates' Correction)
0.8 > P > 0.9

*This category includes also housewives.

(6) Years of residence of the respondents:

Table VI-11 showed that, for both groups, majority of the respondents (79.0% of the control group, 81.0% of the experimental group) had been living in the community for over eleven years. No significant difference was found between the two groups.

TABLE VI-11

YEARS OF RESIDENCE OF THE RESPONDENTS
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Less Than 11 (No.)	(%)	11 & Over (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	4	21.0	15	79.0	19	100.0
Experimental Group	4	19.0	17	81.0	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.06 (with Yates' Correction)
0.8 > P > 0.9

Respondent Characteristics (Second Measurement)

(1) Sex distribution of the respondents:

Table VI-12 showed that, for both groups, majority of the respondents were female (75.9% of the control group, 69.0 of the experimental group). No significant difference was found between the two groups.

TABLE VI-12

SEX DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESPONDENTS
(SECOND MEASUREMENT)

	Male		Female		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	7	24.1	22	75.9	29	100.0
Experimental Group	9	31.0	20	69.0	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.09 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.7 > P > 0.8$

(2) Age distribution of the respondents:

Table VI-13 showed that, for both groups, about seventy percent of the respondent were over 30 years old (72.4% of the control group, 72.4 of the experimental group). No significant difference was found between the two groups.

(3) Educational attainment of the respondents:

The general educational attainment of the respondents of the two groups were low. 65.9% of the control group and 69.0% of the experimental group were below the level of primary education. There was no

significant difference between the two samples. See Table VI-14.

TABLE VI-13

AGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESPONDENTS
(SECOND MEASUREMENT)

Age Group	18-29 (No.)	(%)	30-49 (No.)	(%)	50 & Over (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	8	27.6	7	24.1	14	48.3	29	100.0
Experimental Group	8	27.6	9	31.0	12	41.4	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 0.4
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

TABLE VI-14

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF THE RESPONDENTS
(SECOND MEASUREMENT)

	Below Primary (No.)	(%)	Primary & Over (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	22	75.9	7	24.1	29	100.0
Experimental Group	20	69.0	9	31.0	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.09 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.7 > P > 0.8$

(4) Marital status of the respondents:

69.0% of the respondents of the control group, and 79.3% of the experimental group were already married. Table VI-15 also showed that there was no significant difference between the two groups.

TABLE VI-15

MARITAL STATUS OF THE RESPONDENTS
(SECOND MEASUREMENT)

	Married (No.)	(%)	Others (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	20	69.0	9	31.0	29	100.0
Experimental Group	23	79.3	6	20.7	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.36 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

(5) Employment status of the respondents:

Table VI-16 showed that, for both groups, majority of the respondents, housewives included, were unemployed (75.9% of the control group, 79.3% of the experimental group). No significant difference was found.

TABLE VI-16

EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF THE RESPONDENTS
(SECOND MEASUREMENT)

	Unemployed* (No.)	(%)	Employed (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	22	75.9	7	24.1	29	100.0
Experimental Group	23	79.3	6	20.7	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.00 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.99 > P$

*This category includes also housewives.

(6) Years of residence of the respondents:

Table VI-17 showed that, for both groups, majority of the respondents (86.2% of the control group, 82.8% of the experimental group) had been living in the community for over eleven years. No significant difference was found between the two groups.

TABLE VI-17

YEARS OF RESIDENCE OF THE RESPONDENTS
(SECOND MEASUREMENT)

	Less Than 11		11 & Over		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	4	13.8	25	86.2	29	100.0
Experimental Group	5	17.2	24	82.8	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.00 (with Yates' Correction)
0.99 > P

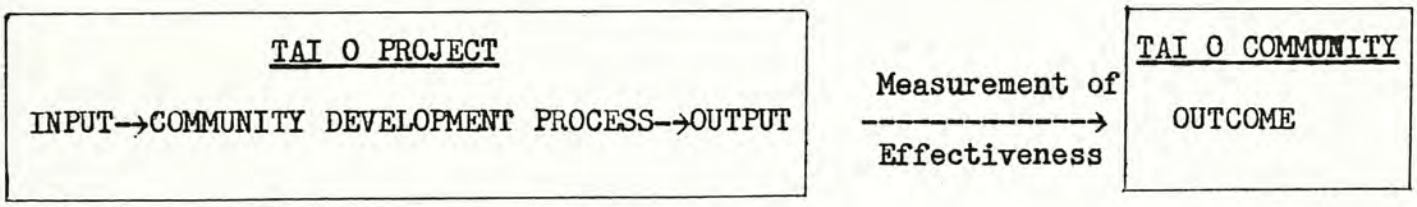
Summary

It was shown that in relation to the frequency distributions of sex, age, educational attainment, marital status, employment status and years of residence, groups of the baseline measurement and groups of the second measurement were similar. It can therefore be concluded that the two groups were well matched in terms of group characteristics and respondents' characteristics tested.

CHAPTER VII

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS: PROJECT STATUS IN RELATION TO PROJECT INPUT, PROJECT OUTPUT AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

The three components of the evaluation framework--input, community development process and output--are used to describe the Tai O Project. This information is considered useful to administrators and community workers in programme revision and development. The relationship between these three components and the measurement of effectiveness is depicted by the following diagram:



A Evaluation Framework for Grassroots Community Development Projects

The project status in relation to the three components, at the time of the second measurement, are discussed below:

Input

(1) Staffing:

The staffing of the Tai O Project for the experimental period consisted of one fresh post-secondary college graduate trained in social work, one secondary school leaver as welfare assistant, one part-time clerk, one part-time amah and one part-time supervisor. When compared

to the standard input, which suggested three trained community workers for a target population of 2,500, the staffing of the Tai O Project was considered adequate since the target population of the project was only about 1,500.

(2) Programme expenses:

Programme expenses for the evaluation period was about HK$1,100. This figure was similar to the amount already budgetted. The project staff did not feel any constraints arising out of the programme budget.

(3) Supplies and equipment:

An additional amount was granted by the sponsoring agency for supplies and equipment needed to set up a new office in the community. The actual expenditure was about HK$ 3,900. The amount was considered adequate by the project staff.

(4) Administrative expenses:

An adequate amount was spent to maintain the smooth running of the project. The actual expenditure was about HK$ 14,000.

(5) Other resources:

A few agencies from outside had been mobilized to provide services to the community. Therefore there were additional resources in the form of manpower and material. Unfortunately no clear accounts, except for the nature of the volunteering service, were available.

(6) Duration of the project:

The time between the baseline measurement and the second measurement was five months.

Output

(1) Total number of home visits = 80

(2) Total number of personal contacts = 1,400

(3) Total number of community studies = 2

One was a study on the needs of children, cosponsored by a volunteer group from outside. The other one was the present evaluation exercise, in which the project staff took part both in design and in data collection.

(4) Total number of programme functions held = See Table VII-1.

Table VII-1 showed that some of the functions were not exclusively for the experimental section. There were practical considerations which made full control of contamination effects almost impossible. Joint functions with local or outside organizations were considered by the programme staff an effective means to establish a rapport. Such joint functions, for various reasons, were meant for the wider community rather than the experimental section alone. The program "Health Inspection for Children",for example, because of the adequate supply of voluntary medical personnel was only reasonable to extend the services to all children of the community.

However as these community-wide functions usually did not involve intensive relationship between the community workers and the residents in general, and were run on an ad hoc basis, the contamination effect was considered not serious.

TABLE VII-1

PROGRAMME FUNCTIONS HELD DURING THE EVALUATION PERIOD

Nature	Status	Frequency	No. of Participants	Co-sponsoring Agency
(i) Seminar on the developmental problems of adolescents	Completed	One day	450 F.1 to F.4 secondary students	A local secondary school
(ii) Picnic	Completed	One day	120 children & youth	A local primary school
(iii) Guitar course	On-going	Twice/ week	26 young people	
(iv) Tutorial group for primary 6 students	On-going	Once/ week	11 primary 6 students	Youth volunteers recruited locally
(v) Health inspection for children	On-going	Main Inspection= one day, Follow up= once/ week	320 children	Two other voluntary agencies
(vi) Fun-fair	Completed	One Evening	200 children	8 volunteers (housewives)
(vii) Volunteer group	On-going	Once/ week	20 youth & 8 housewives	

The Community Development Process

Considering the theorectical framework developed in Chapter II, there are two key variables to analyse the community development process involved in the present exercise. They are: the change function and strategy of

community development.

(1) The change function of community development:

The seven goals of the project were: (i) to promote neighborliness, (ii) to promote the quality of life, (iii) to promote community identity, (iv) to promote citizen participation, (v) to promote civic responsibility, (vi) to identify and develop community leadership, (vii) to prepare residents for better adjustments in the forthcoming resettlement to a new environment. The interpretation of these goals, as indicated by the specific objectives adopted by the project staff (see Chapter IV) showed that the change function of the project was closer to the nature of incremental change, with emphasis on community integration and solidarity. Citizen participation, some would argue, should deserve a classification close to the radical change function. The assumption of this argument was that a greater degree of citizen participation will give rise to more influences by the masses on social policies, and would result in significant redistribution effects. However the way citizen participation was interpreted by the project staff, which was mainly on improving channels of expressing opinion, did not involve any redistribution of power in the decision-making bodies. Therefore it was highly doubtful if the project would result in any redistribution effects.

(2) The strategy of community development:

There were a few indicators which would reveal the strategy adopted by the project. First, the time the community worker spent in establishing working relationship with local established organizations. Second, the nature of the programmes: whether these programmes involved any significant

interest conflicts among various groups in the community. Third, the degree of coercion involved in the tactics to bring about change in the community.

Considering the use of the working hours of the community workers, the following distribution was recorded: 20% in visiting residents, 15% in meeting with working groups and committees, 30% in administration, 15% in staff development (i.e. staff meeting, supervision, etc.), 18% in liaison with voluntary welfare agencies and other organizations, and 2% in research. 18% of the working hours of the community workers were used in liaison with local and outside established organizations; this was quite a significant proportion of the total working hours of the community workers.

The programmes of the project can be classified into four main groups: (i) training, such as guitar course; (ii) recreation, such as picnic; (iii) provision of social service, such as health inspection; (iv) self-help activities, such as mobilizing secondary school students in the community to coach primary six students. It is clear that these programmes involved no significant interest conflicts among the various groups in the community. It is also clear that voluntary participation of all groups was emphasised, and community betterment was implemented through induced changes. Practically speaking, the degree of coercion involved in all the change tactics was minimal.

Referring to the ideal types of community development suggested in Chapter II, it seemed that the present project was closer to the conservative ideal type than the radical ideal type.

Summary

Since a fair assumption is that sufficient staffing and funding are the prerequisites for a project to achieve its goals, the input of the Tai O Project was compared to the standard input proposed by the Working Party on Priorities of Community Development. And it was found that the input of the project in general conformed to the standard input. When the output of the project was analysed, it was found that some residents from the control section had taken part in a few programmes; this might create a contamination effect on the quasi-experimental design. The community development practice, when analysed by the theorectical framework worked out by the present study, showed that it was close to the conservative ideal type; that is, the practice favoured more the incremental change function and concurrence strategy.

CHAPTER VIII

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS: BASELINE MEASUREMENT IN RELATION TO THE GOALS OF THE PROJECT

This chapter will report on the baseline measurement of the dependent variables of this study, which were neighborliness, quality of life, community identity, citizen participation and civic responsibility. The findings of the baseline measurement would be compared with the second measurement. If there are significant changes found in the experimental group but not in the control group, or vice versa, it can be concluded that the project had an initial impact on the community. If the impact is found along the direction of the project goals--to promote neighborliness, quality of life, community identity, citizen participation and civic responsibility--it can then be concluded that the Tai O Grassroots Community Development Project, at the initial implementation stage, was positively effective.

In the baseline measurement, the similarity of the control and experimental groups in relation to dependent variables was also tested by chi square tests at the 0.05 level of significance. If the two groups are found to be similar, the power of control of the quasi-experimental design will be greatly enhanced.

The findings of the baseline measurement are discussed under the five outcome variables.

(1) Neighborliness

(i) proportion of families of the section known to the respondent:

Table VIII-1 showed that, for both groups, majority of the respondents (89.5% of the control group, 76.2% of the experimental group) knew over one quarter of the families in the respective sections. There was no significant difference between the two groups. This high percentage suggested that through the long years of residence the residents had come to know each other quite well. In this case, the indicator is not considered sensitive because of too high a frequency recorded in the category associated with higher neighborliness. It is therefore not suggested for studies on similar communities.

TABLE VIII-1

PROPORTION OF FAMILIES OF THE SECTION KNOWN TO THE RESPONDENT (BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Below 1/4		1/4 & Over		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	2	10.5	17	89.5	19	100.0
Experimental Group	5	23.8	16	76.2	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.47 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.3 > P > 0.5$

(ii) sharing with neighbors on family affairs:

(a) sharing of plans for children's schooling or career:

Table VIII-2 showed that, 77.8% of the respondents of the

control group, and 65.0% of the experimental group seldom or never shared this subject with their neighbors. There was no significant difference between the two groups.

TABLE VIII-2

SHARING OF PLANS FOR CHILDREN'S SCHOOLING OR CAREER WITH NEIGHBORS (BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	4	22.2	14	77.8	18*	100.0
Experimental Group	7	35.0	13	65.0	20#	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.26 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

*Total did not add up to 19, because one family reported to have no children.

#Total did not add up to 21, because one family reported to have no children.

(b) sharing of income-generating plans:

Table VIII-3 showed that an overhwelming majority of the respondents (84.2% of the control group, 90.5% of the experimental group) seldom or never shared such plans with their neighbors. The chi square test showed no difference at 0.05 level of significance.

TABLE VIII-3

SHARING OF INCOME-GENERATING PLANS WITH NEIGHBORS
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	3	15.8	16	84.2	19	100.0
Experimental Group	2	9.5	19	90.5	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.01 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.9 > P > 0.95$

(c) sharing of family problems:

68.4% of the respondents of the control group, and 71.4% of the experimental group seldom or never shared such problems with their neighbors. No significant difference was found between the two groups. See Table VIII-4.

(d) sharing of family happy events:

Table VIII-5 showed that 73.7% of the respondents of the control group and 66.7% of the experimental group seldom or never shared their family happy events with their neighbors. No significant difference was found between the two groups.

TABLE VIII-4

SHARING OF FAMILY PROBLEMS WITH NEIGHBORS
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	6	31.6	13	68.4	19	100.0
Experimental Group	6	28.6	15	71.4	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.02 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

TABLE VIII-5

SHARING OF FAMILY HAPPY EVENTS WITH NEIGHBORS
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	5	26.3	14	73.7	19	100.0
Experimental Group	7	33.3	14	66.7	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.02 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

It is interesting to note that in spite of the fact that the residents had come to know many neighbors, quite a substantial proportion of them seldom or never shared their family affairs with their neighbors. This revealed the different ways the residents perceived the roles of neighbors

and kinship. It seemed that residents would rather keep their family affairs to their kin, an indication of the still strong influence of traditional kinship. In urban communities, such a phenomenon may not be frequent since nuclear family structure are more common. In the latter case, the saying 'good neighbors are more useful than distant kins' would be more meaningful. It seemed that community development in a community in transition would have to replace weakening kinship with stronger neighborhood bonds.

(iii) Frequency of social activities with neighbors:

(a) the proportion of families of the section visited by the respondent: Table VIII-6 showed that 68.4% of the respondents of the control group and 71.4% of the experimental group had visited less than 1/4 of the families of their respective sections. There was no significant difference between the two groups.

(b) frequency of playing traditional gambling games with neighbors: Around seventy percent of the respondents of the two groups (63.2% of the control group, 76.2% of the experimental group) said they seldom or never played those games with neighbors. No significant difference was found. See Table VIII-7.

(c) frequency of going to tea with neighbors: Table VIII-8 showed that, for both groups, about 2/3 of the respondent (68.4% of the control group, 66.7% of the experimental group) said they seldom or never went to tea with their neighbors. No significant difference was found.

TABLE VIII-6

PROPORTION OF FAMILIES OF THE SECTION VISITED BY THE RESPONDENT (BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Below 1/4 (No.)	(%)	1/4 & Over (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	13	68.4	6	31.6	19	100.0
Experimental Group	15	71.4	6	28.6	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.02
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

TABLE VIII-7

FREQUENCY OF PLAYING TRADITIONAL GAMBLING GAMES WITH NEIGHBORS (BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	7	36.8	12	63.2	19	100.0
Experimental Group	5	23.8	16	76.2	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.31 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

(d) frequency of purchasing daily food with neighbors: 52.6% of the respondents of the control group and 61.9% of the experimental group said they sometimes or often purchased food with their neighbors. See Table VIII-9. This frequency distribution showed a relatively higher degree of interaction

compared to other indicators used by this study to measure neighborhood interaction. This was perhaps due to the existence of only one small market in the area. No significant difference was found between the two groups.

TABLE VIII-8

FREQUENCY OF GOING TO TEA WITH NEIGHBORS
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Often or Sometimes		Never Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	6	31.6	13	68.4	19	100.0
Experimental Group	7	33.3	14	66.7	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.05 (with Yates' Correction)
0.8 > P > 0.9

TABLE VIII-9

FREQUENCY OF PURCHASING DAILY FOOD WITH NEIGHBORS
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	10	52.6	9	47.4	19	100.0
Experimental Group	13	61.9	8	38.1	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.07 (with Yates' Correction)
0.7 > P > 0.8

(iv) Mutual help activities:

(a) frequency of taking care of neighbors' children: Table VIII-10 showed that for both groups, an overwhelming majority of the respondents said they sometimes or often helped taking care of their neighbors' children (89.5% of the control group, 85.7% of the experimental group). Due to the concentration of the answers in the category associated with high neighborliness, this indicator was not considered sensitive. No significant difference was found between the two groups.

TABLE VIII-10

FREQUENCY OF TAKING CARE OF NEIGHBORS' CHILDREN
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	17	89.5	2	10.5	19	100.0
Experimental Group	18	85.7	3	14.3	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.01 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.9 > P > 0.95$

(b) frequency of lending money to neighbors: About 1/3 of the respondents said they sometimes or often lent money to their neighbors (36.8% of the control group. 38.1% of the experimental group). No significant difference was found. See Table VIII-11.

TABLE VIII-11

FREQUENCY OF LENDING MONEY TO NEIGHBORS
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	7	36.8	12	63.2	19	100.0
Experimental Group	8	38.1	13	61.9	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.06 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

(c) The confidence to rely on neighbors for help: Table VIII-12 showed that, for both groups, majority of the respondents (78.9% of the control group, 90.5% of the experimental group) said they were confident to rely on their neighbors for similar help. No significant difference was found. For similar reasons suggested in (iv.a) above, this indicator was not recommended.

(d) frequency of taking part in neighborhood fire preventive measures: Table VIII-13 showed that 68.4% of the respondents of the control group and 71.4% of the experimental group said they often or sometimes took part in such programme. No significant difference between the two groups was found.

TABLE VIII-12

THE CONFIDENCE TO RELY ON NEIGHBORS FOR HELP
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Confident (No.)	(%)	Not Confident (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	15	78.9	4	21.1	19	100.0
Experimental Group	19	90.5	2	9.5	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.33 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

TABLE VIII-13

FREQUENCY OF TAKING PART IN NEIGHBORHOOD FIRE PREVENTIVE MEASURES
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	13	68.4	6	31.6	19	100.0
Experimental Group	15	71.4	6	28.6	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.02 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.99 > P$

(e) frequency of taking part in neighborhood typhoon preventive measures: Table VIII-14 showed that slightly less than half of the respondents (47.4% of the control group, 42.9% of the experimental group) said they seldom or never took part in such mutual help activities. No significant difference was found.

TABLE VIII-14

FREQUENCY OF TAKING PART IN NEIGHBORHOOD TYPHOON PREVENTIVE MEASURES (BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	10	52.6	9	47.4	19	100.0
Experimental Group	12	57.1	9	42.9	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.00 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.99 > P$

The indicators for mutual help generally recorded a high frequency in those categories associated with a high degree of mutual help. The exception was found in the item of lending money to neighbors, which may be due to the already low income of most residents.

Summary

Chi square tests for the Tables VIII-1 to VIII-14 showed that all had no difference at the 0.05 level of significance. The two samples were similar in relation to the indicators used to measure neighborliness. These were: proportions of families of the section known to the respondent, sharing of family affairs with neighbors, frequency of neighborhoon social activities and frequency of mutual help activities.

Generally speaking the two groups had low or medium frequencies recorded in indicator categories associated with high degree of neighborliness, except

for the following: proportions of families of the section known to the respondent, frequency of taking care of neighbors' children, confidence to rely on neighbors for help, which were therefore considered less sensitive to measure goal achievement.

The findings showed that neighbors played a less significant role in relation to the aspects of sharing and social activities. Mutual help activities among neighbors were more frequent, indicating that the mutual help concept was still valued.

(2) The Quality of Life

(i) Measurements of family life:

(a) frequency of family outings: Table VIII-15 showed that, for both groups, an overwhelming majority (84.2% of the control group, 81% of the experimental group) of the respondents said they seldom or never had family outings. No significant difference was found.

(b) frequency of family discussions: Slightly less than half of the respondents of the two groups (47.4% of the control group, 42.9% of the experimental group) said they often or sometimes had family discussions on family budgets. Table VIII-16 also showed no significant difference between the two groups.

TABLE VIII-15

FREQUENCY OF FAMILY OUTINGS
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	3	15.8	16	84.2	19	100.0
Experimental Group	4	19.0	17	81.0	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.02 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

TABLE VIII-16

FREQUENCY OF FAMILY DISCUSSIONS
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	10	52.6	9	47.4	19	100.0
Experimental Group	12	57.1	9	42.9	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.00 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.99 > P$

(c) existence of family saving plans: Table VIII-17 showed that, for both groups, about 2/3 of the respondents (79.0% of the control group, 61.9% of the experimental group) said they had no family saving plans. No significant difference was found. One of the most probable causes for this phenomenon was perhaps their low income.

TABLE VIII-17

EXISTENCE OF FAMILY SAVING PLANS
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Yes		No		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	4	21.0	15	79.0	19	100.0
Experimental Group	8	38.1	13	61.9	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.69 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.7 > P > 0.8$

(d) family planning: Majority of the respondents (89.5% of the control group, 81.0% of the experimental group) of the two groups said the best number of children for a young couple was four or above. Table VIII-18 also showed no significant difference.

TABLE VIII-18

NO. OF CHILDREN PREFERRED FOR A YOUNG COUPLE
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	3 & Below		4 & Above		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	2	10.5	17	89.5	19	100.0
Experimental Group	4	19.0	17	81.0	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.10 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.9 > P > 0.95$

(e) perception of change in family life: Table VIII-19 showed that, for both groups, over 1/2 of the respondents (68.4% of the control group, 52.4% of the experimental group) said there was no change in their family life compared to half a year before. No significant difference was found. Analysis of the answers of those who reported change was not carried out because the samll number of respondents remained could not allow for any confident statistical inferences. In spite of this weakness, this indicator was believed to be useful when more respondents reported change in their family life.

TABLE VIII-19

RESPONDENT COMPARING FAMILY LIFE BETWEEN TIME OF INTERVIEW AND HALF A YEAR AGO (BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Change		No Change		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	6	31.6	13	68.4	19	100.0
Experimental Group	10	47.6	11	52.4	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.51 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.3 > P > 0.5$

(ii) Measurements of leisure activities

(a) knowledge of local recreational facilities: Slightly over half of the respondents of the two groups (68.4% of the control group, 61.9% of the experimental group) said they did not know any of the local recreational facilities. No significant difference was found.

See Table VIII-20. This relatively high percentage of respondents who did not know any of the local recreational facilities revealed also the inadequate out-reaching efforts of the few indigenous agencies offering recreational activities, and the lack of an effective community information system.

TABLE VIII-20

KNOWLEDGE OF LOCAL RECREATIONAL FACILITIES
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Yes		No		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	6	31.6	13	68.4	19	100.0
Experimental Group	8	38.1	13	61.9	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.01 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.9 > P > 0.95$

(b) frequency of taking part in leisure activities:

Table VIII-21 showed that, for both groups, a majority of respondents (79.0% of the control group, 76.2% of the experimental group) said they seldom or never engaged in leisure activities. They usually spent their leisure hours at home watching TV, and/or processing semi-finished products from nearby factories or fishing tools (these were income-generating activities). There seemed to be not much difference between work and leisure to most people in the community. It indicated also that life to most people was rather monotonous. No significant difference was found between the two groups.

TABLE VIII-21

FREQUENCY OF TAKING PART IN LEISURE ACTIVITIES
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	4	21.0	15	79.0	19	100.0
Experimental Group	5	23.8	16	76.2	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.03 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

(c) children's leisure activities in relation to their school work: Table VIII-22 showed that, 61.1% of the respondents of the control group and 85% of the experimental group said those leisure activities were not helpful to children's school performance. No significant difference was found.

(d) children's leisure activities in relation to their future career: Table VIII-23 showed that, for both groups, over 2/3 of the respondents (66.7% of the control group, 80.0% of the experimental group) said such activities were not helpful to children's future career. No significant difference was found.

(e) children's leisure activities in relation to their social skills development: Table VIII-24 showed that, for both groups, around 2/3 of the respondents (72.2% of the control group, 60.0% of the experimental group) said such activities were not helpful to children's social skills development. No significant difference was found.

TABLE VIII-22

CHILDREN'S LEISURE ACTIVITIES IN RELATION TO THEIR SCHOOL WORK
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Helpful (No.)	(%)	Not Helpful (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	7	38.9	11	61.1	18*	100.0
Experimental Group	3	15.0	17	85.0	20#	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 1.69 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.1 > P > 0.2$

*Total did not add up to 19 because one family did not report to have children.
#Total did not add up to 21 because one family did not report to have children.

TABLE VIII-23

CHILDREN'S LEISURE ACTIVITIES IN RELATION TO THEIR FUTURE CAREER
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Helpful (No.)	(%)	Not Helpful (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	6	33.3	12	66.7	18*	100.0
Experimental Group	4	20.0	16	80.0	20#	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.32 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

*Total did not add up to 19 because one family did not report to have children.
#Total did not add up to 21 because one family did not report to have children.

TABLE VIII-24

CHILDREN'S LEISURE ACTIVITIES IN RELATION TO THEIR SOCIAL SKILLS DEVELOPMENT (BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Helpful (No.)	(%)	Not Helpful (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	5	27.8	13	72.2	18*	100.0
Experimental Group	8	40.0	12	60.0	20#	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.20 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

*Total did not add up to 19 because one family had no children.
#Total did not add up to 21 because one family had no children.

The findings showed that most residents did not consider the children' leisure activities helpful. This phenomenon may be caused by both the low quality of the existing leisure activities and residents' negative concept toward 'play'. Again, this was an area with great potential for development.

(iii) Measurements related to living environment:

(a) perception of community problems: Table VIII-25 showed that, for both groups, slightly over half of the respondents (57.9% of the control group, 71.4% of the experimental group) identified one or more community problem(s). No significant difference was found. The commonly mentioned problems in the experimental section were dirtiness and flooding in times of heavy rain; for the control section, it was the inadequate transportation facilities to cross the watershed. It is generally assumed that community development should best start with commonly felt

problems. In this case when about 1/3 of the population did not perceive of any problems, it would be difficult to implement community development programmes.

TABLE VIII-25

PERCEPTION OF COMMUNITY PROBLEMS
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	No Problem (No.)	(%)	1 or More (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	8	42.1	11	57.9	19	100.0
Experimental Group	6	28.6	15	71.4	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.32 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

(b) perception of the change in living environment: Table VIII-26 showed that, for both groups, a majority of the respondents did not perceive of any difference in the living environment compared to half a year ago (89.5% of the control group, 71.4% of the experimental group). No significant difference was found. Again, analysis of the answers of those respondents who perceived of change in living environment was dropped because the small number of respondents could not allow for any confident inferences. Such analysis would be most useful when more respondents reported change in their living environment.

TABLE VIII-26

PERCEPTION OF THE CHANGE IN LIVING ENVIRONMENT
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Change (No.)	(%)	No Change (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	2	10.5	17	89.5	19	100.0
Experimental Group	6	28.6	15	71.4	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 1.06 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.3 > P > 0.5$

(iv) Measurements related to non-formal education and expectations on children's educational attainments:

(a) knowledge of non-formal educational facilities: Table VIII-27 showed that, for both groups, a majority of the respondents (84.2% of the control group, 76.2% of the experimental group) said they did not know any of the non-formal educational facilities. No significant difference was found.

(b) use of non-formal educational facilities: Table VIII-28 showed that, for both groups, a majority of the respondents (89.5% of the control group, 76.2% of the experimental group) said they had never made use of those facilities. No significant difference was found.

TABLE VIII-27

KNOWLEDGE OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Yes		No		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	3	15.8	16	84.2	19	100.0
Experimental Group	5	23.8	16	76.2	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.06 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

TABLE VIII-28

USE OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Yes		No		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	2	10.5	17	89.5	19	100.0
Experimental Group	5	23.8	16	76.2	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.47 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.3 > P > 0.5$

(c) expectation on the educational attainment of a male youth: Table VIII-29 showed that, for both groups, a majority of the respondents (73.7% of the control group, 76.2% of the experimental group) had low expectations. No significant difference was found.

TABLE VIII-29

EXPECTATION ON THE EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF A MALE YOUTH
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Primary & Below		Others		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	14	73.7	5	26.3	19	100.0
Experimental Group	16	76.2	5	23.8	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.03 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

(d) expectation on the educational attainment of a female youth:

Table VIII-30 showed that, for both groups, a majority of the respondents (84.2% of the control group, 81.0% of the experimental group) had low expectations. No significant difference was found.

TABLE VIII-30

EXPECTATION ON THE EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF A FEMALE YOUTH
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Primary & Below		Others		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	16	84.2	3	15.8	19	100.0
Experimental Group	17	81.0	4	19.0	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.04 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

The low expectations on children's educational attainment may be due to the following factors: (1) the very inadequate provision of secondary school places in Tai O, and to pursue further education in the city would be a heavy financial burden beyond the abilities of most families; (2) boat people do not usually value education but consider the income-generating labour of their children more important.

(e) sex difference in relation to expectations on educational attainment for female and male youths: Table VIII-31 showed that there was no significant difference between the expectations on educational attainment for female and male youths. However this indicator was not considered reliable since the expectations recorded for both sexes were already very low.

TABLE VIII-31

SEX DIFFERENCE IN RELATION TO EXPECTATIONS ON EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT FOR FEMALE AND MALE YOUTHS (BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Different		Not Different		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	5	26.3	14	73.7	19	100.0
Experimental Group	5	23.8	16	76.2	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.03 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

(f) interaction between family and school: Table VIII-32 showed that, 44.4% of the respondents of the control group and 70% of the experimental group said they and their family members seldom or never talked to school teachers about the performance of their children. No significant difference was found. As it is generally assumed that the more the interaction between family and school, the better will be the children's development, the findings therefore suggested an area for improvement.

TABLE VIII-32

FREQUENCY OF TALKING TO TEACHERS ABOUT CHILDREN'S PERFORMANCE (BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	10	55.6	8	44.4	18*	100.0
Experimental Group	6	30.0	14	70.0	20#	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 1.60 (with Yates' Correction)
0.2 P 0.3

*Total did not add up to 19 because there was one family reported to have no school children.

#Total did not add up to 21 because there was one family reported to have no school children.

Summary

Findings on the quality of life as measured by the indicators used showed no difference at the 0.05 level of significance between the two groups.

The findings also showed great potential areas for development. Such areas were: family planning, leisure activities of the adults, attitude toward children's leisure activities, perception on community problems, expectations of children's educational attainments, interaction between family and school and utilization of non-formal educational facilities.

(3) Community Identity

(i) Respondent's feeling toward the label "Tai O People": Table VIII-33 showed that, for both groups, an overwhelming majority of the respondents (89.5% of the control group, 85.7% of the experimental group) said they had no particular feeling when being labelled as "Tai O People". No significant difference was found. For similar reasons suggested before, the answers of the respondents who reported to have particular feeling toward the label were not analysed. This indicator is believed to be more revealing when more people reported to have particular feeling toward the label.

(ii) choice of a residential community: a majority of the respondents (89.5% of the control group, 85.7% of the experimental group) said Tai O would still be their choice even if they were given other alternatives. No significant difference was found between the two groups. See Table VIII-34. The findings showed a rather high frequency in the category associated with high community identity. Therefore this indicator was not considered sensitive enough to detect changes in goal achievement.

TABLE VIII-33

RESPONDENT'S FEELING WHEN BEING LABELLED AS "TAI O PEOPLE"
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Particular Feeling		No Particular Feeling		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	2	10.5	17	89.5	19	100.0
Experimental Group	3	14.3	18	85.7	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.01
$0.9 > P > 0.95$

TABLE VIII-34

CHOICE OF A RESIDENTIAL COMMUNITY
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Tai O		Other Areas		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	17	89.5	2	10.5	19	100.0
Experimental Group	18	85.7	3	14.3	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.01 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.9 > P > 0.95$

(iii) a community for the younger generation: Table VIII-35 showed that, for both groups, about 2/3 of the respondents (79.0 % of the control group, 61.9 % of the experimental group) said they would wish the younger generation to establish their families and careers in Tai O. No significant difference was found between the two samples. For similar

reasons suggested before, this indicator was not considered sensitive to detect changes in goal achievement.

TABLE VIII-35

A COMMUNITY FOR THE YOUNGER GENERATION
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Yes (No.)	Yes (%)	No (No.)	No (%)	Total (No.)	Total (%)
Control Group	15	79.0	4	21.0	19	100.0
Experimental Group	13	61.9	8	38.1	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.69 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.3 > P > 0.5$

Summary

Among the three indicators used, two recorded a high frequency in categories associated with high degree of community identity. To further enhance this sense of identity greater efforts were to be expected. Also more sophisticated indicators should be developed to measure the fine changes in goal achievement.

The high sense of identity was perhaps due to the following reasons:

(a) most respondents had said they did not like the pollution, over-crowdedness and insecurity of urban areas; whereas Tai O was more spacious, fresh and secure;

(b) they did not feel the lack of opportunities in the Tai O a serious problem;

(c) with low income, most would feel better off in Tai O than urban areas where the living cost was much higher; and

(d) most of the respondents had been living in Tai O for many years, some for generations. It was therefore natural that they had a strong attachment to the community.

(4) Citizen Participation

(i) Social participation:

(a) Frequency of participation in local social activities: Table VIII-36 showed that, for both groups, a majority of the respondents (79.0% of the control group, 76.2% of the experimental group) seldom or never took part in any local social activities organized by local organizations. No significant difference was found between the two groups.

TABLE VIII-36

FREQUENCY OF PARTICIPATION IN LOCAL SOCIAL ACTIVITIES
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	15	79.0	4	21.0	19	100.0
Experimental Group	16	76.2	5	23.8	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.03 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

(b) membership of local organizations: Table VIII-37 showed that, for both groups, a majority of the respondents (79.0% of the control group, 76.2% of the experimental group) were not members of any local organizations. No significant difference was found between the two groups.

TABLE VIII-37

MEMBERSHIP OF LOCAL ORGANIZATIONS
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Not a Member of any local Organization(s)		Member of One or More local Organizations		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	15	79.0	4	21.0	19	100.0
Experimental Group	16	76.2	5	23.8	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.03 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

The findings suggested that the community had a rather low degree of social participation. This could be explained by the following reasons: first, the existence of only a few local organizations; second, these few organizations were not active and seldom reached out to the grassroots; and third, residents in general did not feel the need to join an organization.

(ii) Political particiaption:

(a) level of knowledge of government programmes and services: When respondents were asked whether they knew any of the government programmes and services read out to them, most answered no; the old age allowance scheme was the only exception. Table VIII-38 showed that, 63.2% of the respondents of the control group and 57.1% of the experimental group had a low score. No significant difference was found between the two groups.

TABLE VIII-38

LEVEL OF KNOWLEDGE OF GOVERNMENT PROGRAMMES AND SERVICES (BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Low		Medium		High		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	12	63.2	5	26.3	2	10.5	19	100.0
Experimental Group	12	57.1	4	19.1	5	23.8	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 1.30
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

Note: The scale for this indicator was constructed by the following method:
(1) When the respondent knew one of the services read out to him, he was given one mark; when he knew two of the services, he was given two marks; and so on. He was given zero mark when he knew none of the services.
(2) The following services were read out to respondents: i. the redevelopment plan of Tai O and Tai Yu San, ii. Nine-year free education, iii. Public Assistance Scheme, iv. Disability Allowance, v. Old Age Allowance.
(3) The marks gained by each respondent was divided by 5 (i.e. the number of services read out to him).
(4) Low Score = 0 - 0.3; Medium Score = 0.31 - 0.6; High Score = 0.61 - 1.0 .

(b) frequency of expressing opinion on government policies: Table VIII-39 showed that, for both groups, an overwhelming majority of the respondents (89.5% of the control group, 90.5% of the experimental group) said they seldom or never expressed their opinion on government policies to authorities. No significant difference was found between the two groups.

TABLE VIII-39

FREQUENCY OF EXPRESSING OPINION ON GOVERNMENT POLICIES (BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	2	10.5	17	89.5	19	100.0
Experimental Group	2	9.5	19	90.5	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.18 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

(c) frequency of encouraging other residents as a group to express their opinion on government policies: Table VIII-40 showed that, for both groups, an overwhelming majority of respondents (89.5% of the control group, 90.5% of the experimental group) belonged to the seldom or never category. No significant difference was found between the two groups.

TABLE VIII-40

FREQUENCY OF ENCOURAGING OTHER RESIDENTS AS A GROUP TO EXPRESS THEIR OPINION ON GOVERNMENT POLICIES (BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	2	10.5	17	89.5	19	100.0
Experimental Group	2	9.5	19	90.5	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.18 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

Summary

The findings showed a rather low degree of social and political participation in all the aspects studied, namely: participation in local social activities, membership of local organizations, knowledge of government programmes, frequency of expressing opinion on government policies, and frequency of encouraging other residents as a group to express their opinion on government policies. The situation was similar for both groups as the chi square tests showed no difference for all indicators used at the 0.05 level of significance.

The number of residents who had low scores in relation to knowledge of government programmes were quite substantial and should warrant special attention. It showed clearly that more efforts were needed to get across these information to people in remote areas. Only when the grassroots were well informed could they become active agents toward community betterment.

(5) Civic Responsibility

(i) Responsibility toward environmental improvement:

(a) on voluntary services: Table VIII-41 showed that, for both groups, slightly less than half of the respondents (47.4% of the control group, 47.6% of the experimental group) agreed to the statement that community improvement should not ask for any money or time from residents. No significant difference was found.

TABLE VIII-41

COMMUNITY IMPROVEMENT SHOULD NOT ASK FOR ANY MONEY OR TIME FROM RESIDENTS (BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Agree (No.)	(%)	No Idea (No.)	(%)	Disagree (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Control Group	9	47.4	5	26.3	5	26.3	19	100.0
Experimental Group	10	47.6	7	33.3	4	19.1	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 0.40
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

(b) on dirtiness of the community: Table VIII-42 showed that, for both groups, about half of the respondents (52.6% of the control group, 47.6% of the experimental group) agreed that residents should not bear any responsibility for the dirtiness of the community. No significant difference was found.

(c) on the littering of other residents: Table VIII-43 showed that, for both groups, slightly over half of the respondents (57.9% of the control group, 52.4% of the experimental group) agreed that

they would keep quiet to avoid trouble if spotted someone littering in the community. No significant difference was found.

TABLE VIII-42

RESIDENTS SHOULD NOT BEAR ANY RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE DIRTINESS OF THE COMMUNITY (BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Agree		No Idea		Disagree		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	10	52.6	4	21.1	5	26.3	19	100.0
Experimental Group	10	47.6	3	14.3	8	38.1	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 0.74
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

TABLE VIII- 43

WOULD KEEP QUIET TO AVOID TROUBLE IF SPOTTED SOMEONE LITTERING IN THE COMMUNITY (BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Agree		No Idea		Disagree		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	11	57.9	3	15.8	5	26.3	19	100.0
Experimental Group	11	52.4	2	9.5	8	38.1	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 0.79
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

(ii) Responsibility toward community organization efforts:

(a) on individual member's contribution: Table VIII-44 showed that 47.4% of the respondents of the control group and 33.3% of the experimental group agreed to the statement that there was no need for him/her to help organize community activities because there were other residents available. No significant difference was found.

TABLE VIII-44

THERE WAS NO NEED TO HELP ORGANIZE COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES BECAUSE THERE WERE OTHER RESIDENTS AVAILABLE (BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Agree		No Idea		Disagree		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	9	47.4	6	31.6	4	21.0	19	100.0
Experimental Group	7	33.3	10	47.6	4	19.1	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 1.15
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

(b) dependency on leaders: Table VIII-45 showed that, for both groups, about half of the respondents (57.9% of the control group, 42.9% of the experimental group) agreed to the statement that community problems can easily be solved by a few capable leaders alone. No significant difference was found between the two groups.

TABLE VIII-45

COMMUNITY PROBLEMS CAN EASILY BE SOLVED BY A FEW CAPABLE LEADERS ALONE
(BASELINE MEASUREMENT)

	Agree		No Idea		Disagree		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Control Group	11	57.9	3	15.8	5	26.3	19	100.0
Experimental Group	9	42.9	7	33.3	5	23.8	21	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 1.70
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

Summary

The findings showed no difference at the 0.05 level of significance between the two groups in relation to the indicators used to measure civic responsibility. It also showed that the community had a low score in this aspect. When quite a substantial number of residents had a kind of apathetic and dependent attitude, there would be great difficulty for community building efforts. As projects that aim at desirable attitudinal changes generally require longer and more intensive intervention, the present case would certainly demand closer attention from the project staff.

CHAPTER IX

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS: SECOND MEASUREMENT AND INITIAL IMPACT EVALUATION

This chapter will report on the second measurement and compare it with the baseline measurement. The analysis will take the following steps: (i) to apply chi square test at the 0.05 level of significance to the baseline and second measurements of the control group, (ii) to apply chi square test at the 0.05 level of significance to the baseline and second measurements of the experimental groups, (iii) to compare the results of the first two steps of analysis.

In Chapter VI, it has already been shown that the experimental and control groups were similar in terms of sex, age, educational attainments, marital status, employment status, family income, family type and years of residence; and in Chapter VIII the two groups were similar in relation to all outcome variables. If in this chapter it is found that, for any indicators, there is a significant difference between the baseline and second measurements of the experimental group, but not between the measurements of the control group, or vice versa, then it can be concluded that the project had an initial impact as far as those particular indicators are concerned. And the project is concluded to be positively effective if the impact is found along the direction of the project goals, which are: to promote neighborliness, quality of life, community identity, citizen participation and civic responsibility.

The results of the analysis are discussed under the five outcome variables:

(1) Neighborliness

(i) Proportions of families of the section known to the respondent:

Both Table IX-1 and Table IX-2 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project therefore had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-1

PROPORTION OF FAMILIES OF THE SECTION KNOWN TO THE RESPONDENT (CONTROL GROUP)

	Below 1/4 (No.)	(%)	1/4 & Over (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	2	10.5	17	89.5	19	100.0
Second Measurement	6	20.7	23	79.3	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.28 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

TABLE IX-2

PROPORTION OF FAMILIES OF THE SECTION KNOWN TO THE RESPONDENT (EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Below 1/4 (No.)	(%)	1/4 & Over (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	5	23.8	16	76.2	21	100.0
Second Measurement	1	3.5	28	96.5	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 3.05 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.05 > P > 0.1$

(ii) sharing of family affairs with neighbors:

(a) sharing of plans for children's schooling or career:

Both Table IX-3 and Table IX-4 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-3

SHARING OF PLANS FOR CHILDREN'S SCHOOLING OR CAREER WITH NEIGHBORS (CONTROL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	4	22.2	14	77.8	18*	100.0
Second Measurement	6	21.4	22	78.6	28#	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.09 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.7 > P > 0.8$

*Total did not add up to 19 because there was one family reported to have no children.

#Total did not add up to 29 because there was one family reported to have no children.

TABLE IX-4

SHARING OF PLANS FOR CHILDREN'S SCHOOLING OR CAREER WITH NEIGHBORS
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	7	35.0	13	65.0	20*	100.0
Second Measurement	4	14.8	23	85.2	27#	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 1.61 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.2 > P > 0.3$

*Total did not add up to 21 because there was one family reported to have no children.

#Total did not add up to 29 because there were two families reported to have no children.

(b) sharing of income-generating plans: Both Table IX-5 and Table IX-6 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-5

SHARING OF INCOME-GENERATING PLANS WITH NEIGHBORS
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	3	15.8	16	84.2	19	100.0
Second Measurement	5	17.2	24	82.8	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi Square = 0.05 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

TABLE IX-6

SHARING OF INCOME-GENERATING PLANS WITH NEIGHBORS
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	2	9.5	19	90.5	21	100.0
Second Measurement	5	17.4	24	82.8	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.13 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.7 > P > 0.8$

(c) sharing of family problems: Both Table IX-7 and Table IX-8 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level.

The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-7

SHARING OF FAMILY PROBLEMS WITH NEIGHBORS
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	6	31.6	13	68.4	19	100.0
Second Measurement	7	24.1	22	75.9	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.06 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

TABLE IX-8

SHARING OF FAMILY PROBLEMS WITH NEIGHBORS
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	6	28.6	15	71.4	21	100.0
Second Measurement	8	27.6	21	72.4	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.06 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

(d) sharing of family happy events: Both Table IX-9 and Table IX-10 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-9

SHARING OF FAMILY HAPPY EVENTS WITH NEIGHBORS
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	5	26.3	14	73.7	19	100.0
Second Measurement	15	51.7	14	48.3	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 2.09 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.1 > P > 0.2$

TABLE IX-10

SHARING OF FAMILY HAPPY EVENTS WITH NEIGHBORS
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	7	33.3	14	66.7	21	100.0
Second Measurement	10	34.5	19	65.5	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.05 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

(iii) Frequency of social activities with neighbors:

(a) proportion of families of the section visited by the respondent: Both Table IX-11 and Table IX-12 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-11

PROPORTION OF FAMILIES OF THE SECTION VISITED BY THE RESPONDENT
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Below 1/4		1/4 & Over		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	13	68.4	6	31.6	19	100.0
Second Measurement	21	72.4	8	21.6	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.00 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.99 > P$

TABLE IX-12

PROPORTION OF FAMILIES OF THE SECTION VISITED BY THE RESPONDENT (EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Below 1/4		1/4 & Over		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	15	71.4	6	28.6	21	100.0
Second Measurement	24	82.8	5	17.2	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.37 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

(b) frequency of playing traditional gambling games with neighbors: Both Table IX-13 and Table IX-14 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-13

FREQUENCY OF PLAYING TRADITIONAL GAMBLING GAMES WITH NEIGHBORS (CONTROL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	7	36.8	12	63.2	19	100.0
Second Measurement	4	13.8	25	86.2	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 2.27 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.1 > P > 0.2$

TABLE IX-14

FREQUENCY OF PLAYING TRADITIONAL GAMBLING GAMES WITH NEIGHBORS
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	5	23.8	16	76.2	21	100.0
Second Measurement	3	10.3	26	89.7	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.79 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.3 > P > 0.5$

(c) frequency of going to tea with neighbors: Both Table IX-15 and Table IX-16 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-15

FREQUENCY OF GOING TO TEA WITH NEIGHBORS
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	6	31.6	13	68.4	19	100.0
Second Measurement	13	44.8	16	55.2	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.38 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

TABLE IX-16

FREQUENCY OF GOING TO TEA WITH NEIGHBORS
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	7	33.3	14	66.7	21	100.0
Second Measurement	15	51.7	14	48.3	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 1.01 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.3 > P > 0.5$

(d) frequency of purchasing daily food with neighbors:

Both Table IX-17 and Table IX-18 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-17

FREQUENCY OF PURCHASING DAILY FOOD WITH NEIGHBORS
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	10	52.6	9	47.4	19	100.0
Second Measurement	12	41.4	17	58.6	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.22 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

TABLE IX-18

FREQUENCY OF PURCHASING DAILY FOOD WITH NEIGHBORS
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	13	61.9	8	38.1	21	100.0
Second Measurement	21	72.4	8	27.6	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.23 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

(iv) Mutual help activities:

(a) frequency of taking care of neighbors' children:

Both Table IX-19 and Table IX-20 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-19

FREQUENCY OF TAKING CARE OF NEIGHBORS' CHILDREN
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	17	89.5	2	10.5	19	100.0
Second Measurement	25	86.2	4	13.8	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.01 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.9 > P > 0.95$

TABLE IX-20

FREQUENCY OF TAKING CARE OF NEIGHBORS' CHILDREN
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	18	85.7	3	14.3	21	100.0
Second Measurement	24	82.8	5	17.2	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.01 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.9 > P > 0.95$

(b) frequency of lending money to neighbors: Both Table IX-21 and Table IX-22 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-21

FREQUENCY OF LENDING MONEY TO NEIGHBORS
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	7	36.8	12	63.2	19	100.0
Second Measurement	20	69.0	9	31.0	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 3.61 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.05 > P > 0.0\,2$

TABLE IX-22

FREQUENCY OF LENDING MONEY TO NEIGHBORS
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	8	38.1	13	61.9	21	100.0
Second Measurement	10	34.5	19	65.5	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.00 (with Yates' Correction)
0.99 > P

(c) the confidence to rely on neighbors for help: Both Table IX-23 and Table IX-24 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-23

THE CONFIDENCE TO RELY ON NEIGHBORS FOR HELP
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Confident		Not Confident		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	15	79.0	4	21.0	19	100.0
Second Measurement	24	82.8	5	17.2	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.00
0.99 > P

TABLE IX-24

THE CONFIDENCE TO RELY ON NEIGHBORS FOR HELP
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Confident		Not Confident		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	19	90.5	2	9.5	21	100.0
Second Measurement	26	89.7	3	10.3	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.15 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

(d) frequency of taking part in neighborhood fire preventive measures: Both Table IX-25 and Table IX-26 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-25

FREQUENCY OF TAKING PART IN NEIGHBORHOOD FIRE PREVENTIVE MEASURES
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	13	68.4	6	31.6	19	100.0
Second Measurement	16	55.2	13	44.8	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.38 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

TABLE IX-26

FREQUENCY OF TAKING PART IN NEIGHBORHOOD FIRE PREVENTIVE MEASURES
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	15	71.4	6	28.6	21	100.0
Second Measurement	14	48.3	15	51.7	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 1.81 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.3 > P > 0.5$

(e) frequency of taking part in neighborhood typhoon preventive measures: Both Table IX-27 and Table IX-28 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-27

FREQUENCY OF TAKING PART IN NEIGHBORHOOD TYPHOON PREVENTIVE MEASURES
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	10	52.6	9	47.4	19	100.0
Second Measurement	18	62.1	11	37.9	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.12 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.7 > P > 0.8$

TABLE IX-28

FREQUENCY OF TAKING PART IN NEIGHBORHOOD TYPHOON PREVENTIVE MEASURES (EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	12	57.1	9	42.9	21	100.0
Second Measurement	16	55.2	13	44.8	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.02 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

Summary

The findings showed that the project had no initial impact on the experimental group in relation to the goal to promote neighborliness.

(2) On the Quality of Life

(i) On family life:

(a) frequency of family outings: Both Table IX-29 and Table IX-30 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-29

FREQUENCY OF FAMILY OUTINGS
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	3	15.8	16	84.2	19	100.0
Second Measurement	7	24.1	22	75.9	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.11 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.7 > P > 0.8$

TABLE IX-30

FREQUENCY OF FAMILY OUTINGS
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	4	19.1	17	80.9	21	100.0
Second Measurement	9	31.0	20	69.0	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.39 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

(b) frequency of family discussions: Both Table IX-31 and Table IX-32 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-31

FREQUENCY OF FAMILY DISCUSSIONS
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	10	52.6	9	47.4	19	100.0
Second Measurement	15	51.7	14	48.3	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.05 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

TABLE IX-32

FREQUENCY OF FAMILY DISCUSSIONS
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	12	57.1	9	42.9	21	100.0
Second Measurement	21	72.4	8	27.6	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.68 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.3 > P > 0.5$

(c) existence of family saving plans: Both Table IX-33 and Table IX-34 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-33

EXISTENCE OF FAMILY SAVING PLANS
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Yes		No		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	4	21.1	15	78.9	19	100.0
Second Measurement	11	37.9	18	62.1	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.84 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.3 > P > 0.5$

TABLE IX-34

EXISTENCE OF FAMILY SAVING PLANS
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Yes		No		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	8	38.1	13	61.9	21	100.0
Second Measurement	8	27.6	21	72.4	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi squre = 0.23 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

(d) family planning: Both Table IX-35 and Table IX-36 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-35

NO. OF CHILDREN PREFERRED FOR A YOUNG COUPLE
(CONTROL GROUP)

	3 & Below		4 & Over		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	2	10.5	17	89.5	19	100.0
Second Measurement	6	20.7	23	79.3	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.28 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

TABLE IX-36

NO. OF CHILDREN PREFERRED FOR A YOUNG COUPLE
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	3 & Below		4 & Above		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	4	19.1	17	80.9	21	100.0
Second Measurement	7	24.1	22	75.9	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.01 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.9 > P > 0.95$

(e) perception of change in family life: Both Table IX-37 and Table IX-38 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-37

RESPONDENT COMPARING FAMILY LIFE BETWEEN TIME OF INTERVIEW AND HALF A YEAR AGO (CONTROL GROUP)

	Change		No Change		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	6	31.6	13	68.4	19	100.0
Second Measurement	9	31.0	20	69.0	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.08 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.7 > P > 0.8$

TABLE IX-38

RESPONDENT COMPARING FAMILY LIFE BETWEEN TIME OF INTERVIEW AND HALF A YEAR AGO (EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Change		No Change		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	10	47.6	11	52.4	21	100.0
Second Measurement	16	55.2	13	44.8	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.06 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

(ii) Measurements of leisure activities:

(a) knowledge of local recreational facilities: Both Table IX-39 and Table IX-40 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-39

KNOWLEDGE OF LOCAL RECREATIONAL FACILITES
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Yes		No		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	6	31.6	13	68.4	19	100.0
Second Measurement	10	34.5	19	65.5	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.01 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.9 > P > 0.95$

TABLE IX-40

KNOWLEDGE OF LOCAL RECREATIONAL FACILITIES
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Yes		No		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	8	38.1	13	61.9	21	100.0
Second Measurement	19	65.5	10	34.5	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 2.67 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.1 > P > 0.2$

(b) frequency of taking part in leisure activities: Both Table IX-41 and Table IX-42 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-41

FREQUENCY OF TAKING PART IN LEISURE ACTIVITIES
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	4	21.0	15	79.0	19	100.0
Second Measurement	12	41.4	17	58.6	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 1.32 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.2 > P > 0.3$

TABLE IX-42

FREQUENCY OF TAKING PART IN LEISURE ACTIVITIES
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes (No.)	(%)	Never or Seldom (No)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	5	23.8	16	76.2	21	100.0
Second Measurement	10	34.5	19	65.5	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.24 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

(c) children's leisure activities in relation to their school work: Both Table IX-43 and Table IX-44 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-43

CHILDREN'S LEISURE ACTIVITIES IN RELATION TO THEIR SCHOOL WORK (CONTROL GROUP)

	Helpful		Not Helpful		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	7	38.9	11	61.1	18*	100.0
Second Measurement	11	39.3	17	60.7	28#	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.08 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.7 > P > 0.8$

*Total did not add up to 19 because there was one family reported to have no children.

#Total did not add up to 29 because there was one family reported to have no children.

TABLE IX-44

CHILDREN' LEISURE ACTIVITIES IN RELATION TO THEIR SCHOOL WORK
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Helpful		Not Helpful		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	3	15.0	17	85.0	20*	100.0
Second Measurement	5	18.5	22	81.5	27#	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.01 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.9 > P > 0.95$

*Total did not add up to 21 because there was one family reported to have no children.

#Total did not add up to 29 because there were two families reported to have no children.

(d) children's leisure activities in relation to their future career: Both Table IX-45 and Table IX-46 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-45

CHILDREN'S LEISURE ACTIVITIES IN RELATION TO THEIR FUTURE CAREER
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Helpful (No.)	(%)	Not Helpful (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	6	33.3	12	66.7	18*	100.0
Second Measurement	6	21.4	22	78.6	28#	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.31 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

*Total did not add up to 19 because there was one family reported to have no children.

#Total did not add up to 29 because there was one family reported to have no children.

TABLE IX-46

CHILDREN'S LEISURE ACTIVITIES IN RELATION TO THEIR FUTURE CAREER
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Helpful (No.)	(%)	Not Helpful (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	4	20.0	16	80.0	20*	100.0
Second Measurement	5	18.5	22	81.5	27#	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.06 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

*Total did not add up to 21 because there was one family reported to have no children.

#Total did not add up to 29 because there were two families reported to have no children.

(e) children's leisure activities in relation to their social skills development: Both Table IX-47 and Table IX-48 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-47

CHILDREN'S LEISURE ACTIVITIES IN RELATION TO THEIR SOCIAL SKILLS DEVELOPMENT (CONTROL GROUP)

	Helpful		Not Helpful		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	5	27.8	13	72.2	18*	100.0
Second Measurement	9	32.1	19	67.9	28#	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.00 (with Yates' Correction)
0.99 > P

*Total did not add up to 19 because there was one family reported to have no childre.

#Total did not add up to 29 because there was one family reported to have no children.

TABLE IX-48

CHILDREN'S LEISURE ACTIVITIES IN RELATION TO THEIR SOCIAL SKILLS DEVELOPMENT (EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Helpful (No.)	(%)	Not Helpful (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	8	40.0	12	60.0	20*	100.0
Second Measurement	7	25.9	20	74.1	27#	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.50 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.3 > P > 0.5$

*Total did not add up to 21 because there was one family reported to have no children.

#Total did not add up to 29 because there were two families reported to have no children.

(iii) Measurements related to living environment:

(a) perception of community problems: Both Table IX-49 and Table IX-50 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-49

PERCEPTION OF COMMUNITY PROBLEMS
(CONTROL GROUP)

	No Problem (No.)	(%)	1 or More (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	8	42.1	11	57.9	19	100.0
Second Measurement	18	62.1	11	37.9	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 1.13 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.2 > P > 0.3$

TABLE IX-50

PERCEPTION OF COMMUNITY PROBLEMS
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	No Problem (No.)	(%)	1 or More (No.)	(%)	Total (No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	6	28.6	15	71.4	21	100.0
Second Measurement	8	27.6	21	72.4	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.06 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

(b) perception of the change in living environment: Both Table IX-51 and Table IX-52 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-51

PERCEPTION OF THE CHANGE IN LIVING ENVIRONMENT
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Change		No Change		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	2	10.5	17	89.5	19	100.0
Second Measurement	5	17.2	24	82.8	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.05 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

TABLE IX-52

PERCEPTION OF THE CHANGE IN LIVING ENVIRONMENT
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Change		No Change		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	6	28.6	15	71.4	21	100.0
Second Measurement	8	27.6	21	72.4	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.06 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

(iv) Measurements related to non-formal education and expectations on children's educational attainments:

(a) knowledge of non-formal educational facilities: Both Table IX-53 and Table IX-54 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-53

KNOWLEDGE OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES (CONTROL GROUP)

	Yes		No		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	3	15.8	16	84.2	19	100.0
Second Measurement	5	17.2	24	82.8	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.07 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.7 > P > 0.8$

TABLE IX-54

KNOWLEDGE OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES (EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Yes		No		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	5	23.8	16	76.2	21	100.0
Second Measurement	1	3.4	28	96.6	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 3.05 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.05 > P > 0.1$

(b) use of non-formal educational facilities: Both Table IX-55 and Table IX-56 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-55

USE OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Yes		No		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	2	10.5	17	89.5	19	100.0
Second Measurement	2	6.9	27	93.1	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.01 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.9 > P > 0.95$

TABLE IX-56

USE OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Yes		No		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	5	23.8	16	76.2	21	100.0
Second Measurement	2	6.9	27	93.1	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 1.66 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.1 > P > 0.2$

(c) expectation on the educational attainment of a male youth: Both Table IX-57 and Table IX-58 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-57

EXPECTATION ON THE EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF A MALE YOUTH (CONTROL GROUP)

	Primary & Below		Others		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	14	73.6	5	26.3	19	100.0
Second Measurement	21	72.4	8	27.6	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.58 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.3 > P > 0.5$

TABLE IX-58

EXPECTATION ON THE EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF A MALE YOUTH (EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Primary & Below		Others		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	16	76.2	5	23.8	21	100.0
Second Measurement	20	69.0	9	31.0	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.13 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.7 > P > 0.8$

(d) expectation on the educational attainment of a female youth: Both Table IX-59 and Table IX-60 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-59

EXPECTATION ON THE EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF A FEMALE YOUTH (CONTROL GROUP)

	Primary & Below		Others		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	16	84.2	3	15.8	19	100.0
Second Measurement	23	79.3	6	20.7	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.01 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.9 > P > 0.95$

TABLE IX-60

EXPECTATION ON THE EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF A FEMALE YOUTH (EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Primary & Below		Others		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	17	81.0	4	19.0	21	100.0
Second Measurement	23	79.3	6	20.7	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.04 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

(e) sex difference in relation to expectations on educational attainment for female and male youths: Both Table IX-61 and Table IX-62 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-61

SEX DIFFERENCE IN RELATION TO EXPECTATIONS ON EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT FOR FEMALE AND MALE YOUTHS (CONTROL GROUP)

	Different		Not Different		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	5	26.3	14	73.7	19	100.0
Second Measurement	9	31.0	20	69.0	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.00 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.99 > P$

TABLE IX-62

SEX DIFFERENCE IN RELATION TO EXPECTATIONS ON EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT FOR FEMALE AND MALE YOUTHS (EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Different		Not Different		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	5	23.8	16	76.2	21	100.0
Second Measurement	10	34.5	19	65.5	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.25 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

(f) interaction between family and school: Both Table IX-63 and Table IX-64 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-63

FREQUENCY OF TALKING TO TEACHERS ABOUT CHILDREN'S PERFORMANCE (CONTROL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	10	55.6	8	44.4	18*	100.0
Second Measurement	16	57.1	12	42.9	28#	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.04 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

*Total did not add up to 19 because there was one family reported to have no children.

#Total did not add up to 29 because there was one family reported to have no children.

TABLE IX-64

FREQUENCY OF TALKING TO TEACHERS ABOUT CHILDREN'S PERFORMANCE (EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	6	30.0	14	70.0	20*	100.0
Second Measurement	12	44.4	15	55.6	27#	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.50 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.3 > P > 0.5$

Summary

The findings showed that the project had no initial impact on the experimental group in relation to all the aspects of the quality of life investigated.

(3) Community Identity

(i) Respondent's feeling toward the label "Tai O People": Both Table IX-65 and Table IX-66 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-65

RESPONDENT'S FEELING TOWARD THE LABEL "TAI O PEOPLE"
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Particular		No Particular		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	2	10.5	17	89.5	19	100.0
Second Measurement	5	17.2	24	82.8	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.05 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

TABLE IX-66

RESPONDENT'S FEELING TOWARD THE LABEL "TAI O PEOPLE"
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Particular Feeling		No Particular Feeling		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	3	14.3	18	85.7	21	100.0
Second Measurement	3	10.3	26	89.7	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.00 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.99 > P$

(ii) choice of a residential community: Both Table IX-67 and Table IX-68 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-67

CHOICE OF A RESIDENTIAL COMMUNITY
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Tai O		Other Areas		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	17	89.5	2	10.5	19	100.0
Second Measurement	25	86.2	4	13.8	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.01 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.9 > P > 0.95$

TABLE IX-68

CHOICE OF RESIDENTIAL COMMUNITY
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Tai O		Other Areas		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	18	85.7	3	14.3	21	100.0
Second Measurement	26	89.7	3	10.3	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.00 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.99 > P$

(iii) a community for the younger generation: Both Table IX-69 and Table IX-70 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-69

A COMMUNITY FOR THE YOUNGER GENERATION
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Yes		No		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	15	79.0	4	21.0	19	100.0
Second Measurement	20	69.0	9	31.0	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.18 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

TABLE IX-70

A COMMUNITY FOR THE YOUNGER GENERATION
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Yes		No		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	13	61.9	8	38.1	21	100.0
Second Measurement	18	62.1	11	37.9	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.08 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.7 > P > 0.8$

Summary

The findings showed that the project had no initial impact on the experimental group in relation to all the indicators used to measure community identity. However as pointed out in the previous chapter, these indicators were not considered sensitive enough for the Tai O community, the findings should be interpreted with caution.

(4) Citizen Participation

(i) Social participation:

(a) frequency of participation in local social activities: Both Table IX-71 and Table IX-72 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-71

FREQUENCY OF PARTICIPATION IN LOCAL SOCIAL ACTIVITIES
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	15	79.0	4	21.0	19	100.0
Second Measurement	23	79.3	6	20.7	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.11 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.7 > P > 0.8$

TABLE IX-72

FREQUENCY OF PARTICIPATION IN LOCAL SOCIAL ACTIVITIES
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	16	76.2	5	23.8	21	100.0
Second Measurement	20	69.0	9	31.0	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.06 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

(b) membership of local organizations: Both Table IX-73 and Table IX-74 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-73

MEMBERSHIP OF LOCAL ORGANIZATIONS
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Not a Member of Any Local Organization		Member of One or More Local Organization(s)		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	15	79.0	4	21.0	19	100.0
Second Measurement	21	72.4	8	27.6	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.03 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

TABLE IX-74

MEMBERSHIP OF LOCAL ORGANIZATIONS
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Not a Member of Any Local Organization		Member of One or More Local Organization(s)		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	16	76.2	5	23.8	21	100.0
Second Measurement	22	75.9	7	24.1	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.10 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.7 > P > 0.8$

(ii) Political participation:

(a) level of knowledge of government programmes and services: Both Table IX-75 and Table IX-76 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-75

LEVEL OF KNOWLEDGE OF GOVERNMENT PROGRAMMES AND SERVICES
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Low		Medium		High		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	12	63.2	5	26.3	2	10.5	19	100.0
Second Measurement	20	69.0	6	20.7	3	10.3	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 0.22
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

Note: For the scale, refer to Table VIII-38, p. 99.

TABLE IX-76

LEVEL OF KNOWLEDGE OF GOVERNMENT PROGRAMMES AND SERVICES
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Low		Medium		High		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	12	57.1	4	19.1	5	23.8	21	100.0
Second Measurement	21	72.4	6	20.7	2	6.9	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 2.94
$0.2 > P > 0.3$

Note: For the scale, refer to Table VIII-38, p.99.

(b) frequency of expressing opinion on government policies: Both Table IX-77 and Table IX-78 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-77

FREQUENCY OF EXPRESSING OPINION ON GOVERNMENT POLICIES
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	2	10.5	17	89.5	19	100.0
Second Measurement	4	13.8	25	86.2	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.01 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.9 > P > 0.95$

TABLE IX-78

FREQUENCY OF EXPRESSING OPINION ON GOVERNMENT POLICIES
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	2	9.5	19	90.5	21	100.0
Second Measurement	3	10.3	26	89.7	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.15 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

(c) frequency of encouraging other residents as a group to express their opinion on government policies: Both Table IX-79 and Table IX-80 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-79

FREQUENCY OF ENCOURAGING OTHER RESIDENTS AS A GROUP TO EXPRESS THEIR OPINION ON GOVERNMENT POLICIES (CONTROL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	2	10.5	17	89.5	19	100.0
Second Measurement	3	10.3	26	89.7	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.21 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

TABLE IX-80

FREQUENCY OF ENCOURAGING OTHER RESIDENTS AS A GROUP TO EXPRESS THEIR OPINION ON GOVERNMENT POLICIES (EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Often or Sometimes		Never or Seldom		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	2	9.5	19	90.5	21	100.0
Second Measurement	3	10.3	26	89.7	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 1
Chi square = 0.15 (with Yates' Correction)
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

Summary

The findings showed that the project had no initial impact on the experimental group in relation to all the indicators used to measure citizen participation.

(5) Civic Responsibility

(i) Responsibility toward environmental improvement:

(a) on voluntary services: Both Table IX-81 and Table IX-82 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-81

COMMUNITY IMPROVEMENT SHOULD NOT ASK FOR ANY MONEY OR TIME FROM RESIDENTS (CONTROL GROUP)

	Agree		No Idea		Disagree		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	9	47.4	5	26.3	5	26.3	19	100.0
Second Measurement	16	55.2	6	20.7	7	24.1	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 0.31
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

TABLE IX-82

COMMUNITY IMPROVEMENT SHOULD NOT ASK FOR ANY MONEY OR TIME FROM RESIDENTS
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Agree		No Idea		Disagree		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	10	47.6	7	33.3	4	19.1	21	100.0
Second Measurement	11	37.9	11	37.9	7	24.2	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 0.49
$0.7 > P > 0.8$

(b) on dirtiness of the community: Both Table IX-83 and Table IX-84 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-83

RESIDENTS SHOULD NOT BEAR ANY RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE
DIRTINESS OF THE COMMUNITY
(CONTROL GROUP)

	Agree		No Idea		Disagree		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	10	52.6	4	21.1	5	26.3	19	100.0
Second Measurement	15	51.7	8	27.6	6	20.7	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 0.36
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

TABLE IX-84

RESIDENTS SHOULD NOT BEAR ANY RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE DIRTINESS OF THE COMMUNITY (EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Agree		No Idea		Disagree		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	10	47.6	3	14.3	8	38.1	21	100.0
Second Measurement	12	41.4	5	17.2	12	41.4	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 0.21
$0.9 > P > 0.95$

(c) on the littering of other residents: Both Table IX-85 and Table IX-86 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-85

WOULD KEEP QUIET TO AVOID TROUBLE IF SPOTTED SOMEONE LITTERING IN THE COMMUNITY (CONTROL GROUP)

	Agree		No Idea		Disagree		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	11	57.9	3	15.8	5	26.3	19	100.0
Second Measurement	17	58.6	4	13.8	8	27.6	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 0.04
$0.98 > P > 0.99$

TABLE IX-86

WOULD KEEP QUIET TO AVOID TROUBLE IF SPOTTED SOMEONE LITTERING IN THE COMMUNITY (EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Agree		No Idea		Disagree		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	11	52.4	2	9.5	8	38.1	21	100.0
Second Measurement	17	58.6	1	3.5	11	37.9	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 0.83
$0.5 > P > 0.7$

(ii) Responsibility toward community organization efforts:

(a) on individual member's contribution: Both Table IX-87 and Table IX-88 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-87

THERE WAS NO NEED TO HELP ORGANIZE COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES BECAUSE THERE WERE OTHER RESIDENTS AVAILABLE (CONTROL GROUP)

	Agree		No Idea		Disagree		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	9	47.4	6	31.6	4	21.0	19	100.0
Second Measurement	12	41.4	10	34.5	7	24.1	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 0.17
$0.9 > P > 0.95$

TABLE IX-88

THERE WAS NO NEED TO HELP ORGANIZE COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES BECAUSE THERE WERE OTHER RESIDENTS AVAILABLE (EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Agree		No Idea		Disagree		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	7	33.3	10	47.6	4	19.1	21	100.0
Second Measurement	10	34.5	12	41.4	7	24.1	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 0.26
$0.8 > P > 0.9$

(b) dependency on leaders: Both Table IX-89 and Table IX-90 showed no significant difference at the 0.05 level. The project had no initial impact in relation to this aspect.

TABLE IX-89

COMMUNITY PROBLEMS CAN EASILY BE SOLVED BY A FEW CAPABLE LEADERS ALONE (CONTROL GROUP)

	Agree		No Idea		Disagree		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	11	57.9	3	15.8	5	26.3	19	100.0
Second Measurement	16	55.2	5	17.2	8	27.6	29	100.0

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 0.04
$0.98 > P > 0.99$

TABLE IX-90

COMMUNITY PROBLEMS CAN EASILY BE SOLVED BY A FEW CAPABLE LEADERS ALONE
(EXPERIMENTAL GROUP)

	Agree		No Idea		Disagree		Total	
	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(No.)	(%)
Baseline Measurement	9	42.9	7	33.3	5	23.8	21	100.0
Second Measurement	15	51.7	7	24.1	7	24.1	29	99.9

Degree of freedom = 2
Chi square = 0.57
$0.7 > P > 0.8$

Summary

The findings showed that the project had no initial impact on the experimental group in relation to all the indicators used to measure civic responsibility.

Summary of the Chapter

As far as the five goals of the project are concerned, namely: to promote neighborliness, to promote the quality of life, to promote community identity, to promote citizen participation and to promote civic responsibility, the findings showed that the project had no initial impact on the experimental group.

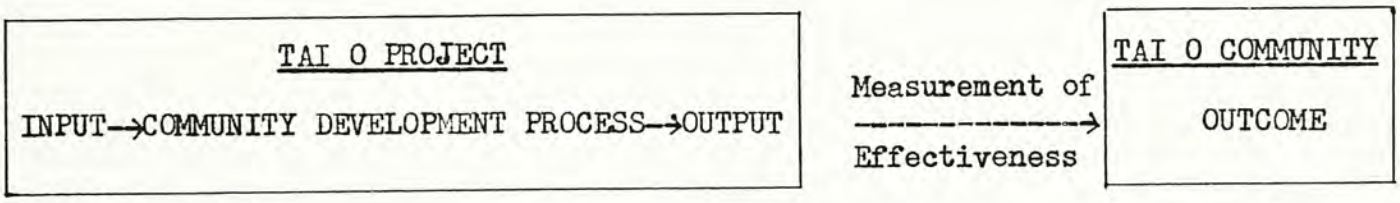
CHAPTER X

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Summary of the Research Plan

The purposes of this study were: (1) to develop a research plan to evaluate the effectiveness of the Tai O Grassroots Community Development Project, (2) to initiate the implementation of this research plan by (a) collecting baseline measurement and (b) by conducting a short-term impact study as a first step.

The research plan consisted of a evaluation framework and a quasi-experimental design. The evaluation had four components, and their relationship is depicted below:



To evaluate the effectiveness of the Tai O Project was to find out whether or not the project had caused any significant changes in the outcome component which was measured against the goals of the project, namely: to promote neighborliness, quality of life, community identity, citizen participation and civic responsibility. To minimize the confusion often encountered in operationalizing the outcome variables, measuring indicators were worked out together with the project staff.

The quasi-experimental design was used to control other factors which might have effects on the outcome component. The following possible internal intervening variables were identified: sex, age, educational attainment, marital status, employment status, family income, family type and years of residence. These internal intervening variables were controlled by the use of two similar but geographically distinct sections of the community to be the experimental and control groups. External intervening variables were controlled by the use of longitudinal studies: a baseline measurement and a second measurement.

Data for the outcome variables were collected from proportionate stratified random samples of the two sections through personal interviews with structured interviewing schedules. Different samples were used for the two measurements so as to minimize possible biases resulting from respondents' maturation with the measuring indicators.

For statistical analysis between the control group and experimental group , the following steps were taken: (i) to test baseline data of the two groups, (ii) to test the baseline and second measurements of the control group, (iii) to test the baseline and second measurements of the experimental group. For each test, a chi square test at the 0.05 level of significance was used. If it is found that only the experimental group showed significant changes along the direction of the project goals, it can be concluded that the Tai O Project, at its initial implementation, was positively effective.

The other three components of the evaluation framework--input, community development process and out--were used to describe the Tai O Project. The following indicators were used for the input component: (1) staffing, (2) programme expenses, (3) supplies and equipment, (4) administrative expenses, (5) other resources, (6) duration of the project. For the output component, the following indicators were used: (1) number of home visits conducted, (2) number of personal contacts, (3) number of community studies conducted, (4) number of programmes held, (5) number of groups formed, (6) number of meetings held with indigenous organizations. In order to analysis the variations of community development practice, this study worked out a theorectical framework which consisted of a conservative ideal type and a radical ideal type. It was assumed that the two ideal types were located at opposite ends of a continuum. By comparing with the change functions and strategies of the ideal types, community development practices can be classified along the hypothetical continuum.

Summary and Discussion of Findings

1. Project status in relation to project input, project output and community development process:

(a) Project Input: Generally speaking, the project input was as budgeted by the sponsoring agency except for staffing due to difficulty in recruitment. Since a fair assumption is that sufficient staffing and funding are the prerequisities for a project to achieve its goals, the input of the Tai O Project was compared to the standard input proposed

by the Working Party on Priorities of Community Development. The standard suggested three community workers for a population of 25,000. In the case of the Tai O Project, during the evaluation period, there were one full-time and one part-time community workers to serve a population of 1,500. It can be considered that the input of the project in general conformed to the standard input.

(b) Project Output: The following project output were recorded: 80 home visits, 1,400 personal contacts, 2 community studies and 7 programme functions. Qualitative description of the project output was not attempted by the present study.

(c) Community Development Process: Using the theorectical construct for the analysis of variations in community development practice, it was found that the practice adopted by the Tai O Project was closer to the conservative ideal type, i.e. the project favoured more the incremental change function and the concurrence strategy.

2. Matching of the experimental and control groups in relation to possible internal intervening variables:

(a) Table IX-1 gives a tabulated summary of the chi square tests of the experimental and control group in relation to sex, age, educational attainment, marital status, employment status, family income, family type and years of residence.

(b) The findings showed that none of the chi square tests was significant at the 0.05 level of significance. The two groups were similar in relation to sex, age, educational attainment, marital status, employment status, family income, family type and years of residence. It can, therefore, be concluded that these internal intervening variables had no effect on the causal relationship between the Tai O Project and the project outcome.

TABLE X-1

SUMMARY OF THE CHI SQUARE TESTS ON THE MATCHING OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

A. Sample Characteristics

		Chi Square Value
(1)	Sex distribution of sample household members	3.62
(2)	Age distribution of sample household members	0.57
(3)	Educational attainments of sample household members	0.98
(4)	Type of family of sample households	0.03
(5)	Income distribution of sample households	2.07

B. Respondent Characteristics

		Chi Square Value	
		Baseline Measurement	Second Measurement
(1)	Sex	0.31	0.09
(2)	Age	0.94	0.40
(3)	Educational Attainment	0.02	0.09
(4)	Marital Status	0.02	0.36
(5)	Employment Status	0.05	0.00
(6)	Years of Residence	0.06	0.00

Note: None of the chi square tests was significant at the 0.05 level of significance.

3. Measurements in relation to outcome variables (the baseline measurement):

(a) Summary of findings: Table X-2 gives a tabulated summary of the chi square tests of the baseline measurements of the experimental and control groups in relation to neighborliness, quality of life, community identity, citizen participation and civic responsibility.

(b) Discussion of findings:

(i) it was found that the two groups were similar in relation to all outcome variables at the time of the baseline measurement. This similarity of the two groups had increased the power of interpretation of the evaluative research design.

(ii) when the findings were analysed against the five goals, namely: to promote neighborliness, to promote the quality of life, to promote community identity, to promote citizen participation and to promote civic respobsibility, the following impressions were gathered:

(1) neighborliness: generally speaking, mutual help activities were more frequent than sharing of family plans, family problems and family happy events, and taking part together in leisure activities.

(2) quality of life: the two groups generally showed a low level of family interaction and were not interested in family planning. Leisure activities of the adults were simple and infrequent, and those of the children were not considered helpful. Most residents felt little change in the living environment over the months. No commonly

felt problem was identified. Non-formal education as a means to improve the quality of life, was generally ignored. Even formal education was not highly valued.

(3) community identity: using the present indicators, a high sense of community identity was recorded. This phenomenon suggested at least two areas of concern to evaluators and project officers, namely i) community identity may not necessarily be an area of priority, ii) a more sophisticated set of indicators was needed.

(4) citizen participation: the two groups recorded a rather low degree of citizen participation. This suggested an area for priority concern.

(5) civic responsibility: the findings also showed a low score in civic responsibility. When quite a substantial number of residents had a kind of apathetic and dependent attitude, there would be great difficulty for community building efforts. The present case therefore suggested a more intensive and longer intervention from the project staff.

4. Tests for effectiveness:

(a) Summary of findings: Table X-3 gives a tabulated summary of the chi square tests of (i) the baseline and second measurements of the control group and (ii) the baseline and second measurements of the experimental group.

TABLE X-2

SUMMARY OF THE CHI SQUARE TESTS OF THE BASELINE MEASUREMENT OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN RELATION TO OUTCOME VARIABLES

	Chi Square Value
Neighborliness	
(1) Proportion of families of the section known to the respondent	0.47
(2) Sharing of plans for children's schooling or career	0.26
(3) Sharing of income-generating plans	0.01
(4) Sharing of family problems	0.02
(5) Sharing of family happy events	0.02
(6) Proportion of families of the section visited	0.02
(7) Frequency of playing traditional gambling games with neighbors	0.31
(8) Frequency of going to tea with neighbors	0.05
(9) Frequency of purchasing daily food with neighbors	0.07
(10) Frequency of taking care of neighbor's children	0.01
(11) Frequency of lending money to neighbors	0.06
(12) Confidence to rely on neighbors for help	0.33
(13) Frequency of taking part in neighborhood fire preventive measures	0.02
(14) Frequency of taking part in neighborhood typhoon preventive measures	0.00
Quality of Life	
(15) Frequency of family outings	0.02
(16) Frequency of family discussions	0.00
(17) Existence of family saving plans	0.69
(18) No. of children preferred for a young couple	0.10
(19) Respondent comparing family life between time of interview and half a year ago	0.51
(20) Knowledge of local recreational facilities	0.01
(21) Frequency of taking part in leisure activities	0.03
(22) Children's leisure activities in relation to their school work	1.69
(23) Children's leisure activities in relation to their future career	0.32
(24) Children's leisure activities in relation to their social skills development	0.20

(25)	Perception of community problems	0.32
(26)	Perception of the change in living environment	1.06
(27)	Knowledge of non-formal educational facilities	0.06
(28)	Use of non-formal educational facilities	0.47
(29)	Expectation on the educational attainment of a male youth	0.03
(30)	Expectation on the educational attainment of a female youth	0.04
(31)	Sex difference in relation to expectations on educational attainment for female and male youth	0.03
(32)	Frequency of talking to teachers about children's performance	1.60

Community Identity

(33)	Respondent's feeling when being labelled as "Tai O People"	0.01
(34)	Choice of a residential community	0.01
(35)	A community for the younger generation	0.69

Citizen Participation

(36)	Frequency of participation in local social activities	0.03
(37)	Membership of local organizations	0.03
(38)	Level of knowledge of government programmes and services	1.30
(39)	Frequency of expressing opinion on government policies	0.18
(40)	Frequency of encouraging other residents as a group to express their opinion on government policies	0.18

Civic Responsibility

(41)	Community improvement should not ask for any money or time from residents	0.40
(42)	Residents should not bear any responsibility for the dirtiness of the community	0.74
(43)	Would keep quiet to avoid trouble	0.79
(44)	There was no need to help organize community activities	1.15
(45)	Community problems can easily be solved by few leaders alone	1.70

None of the chi square tests was significant at the 0.05 level of significance.

TABLE X-3

SUMMARY OF THE CHI SQUARE TESTS OF THE BASELINE AND SECOND MEASUREMENTS OF THE CONTROL GROUP AND THAT OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

	Chi Square Value	
	Control Group	Experimental Group
Neighborliness		
(1) Proportion of families of the section known to the respondent	0.28	3.05
(2) Sharing of plans for children's schooling or career	0.09	1.61
(3) Sharing of income-generating plans	0.05	0.13
(4) Sharing of family problems	0.06	0.06
(5) Sharing of family happy events	2.09	0.05
(6) Proportion of families of the section visited	0.00	0.37
(7) Frequency of playing traditional gambling games with neighbors	2.27	0.79
(8) Frequency of going to tea with neighbors	0.38	1.01
(9) Frequency of purchasing daily food with neighbors	0.22	0.23
(10) Frequency of taking care of neighbor's children	0.01	0.01
(11) Frequency of lending money to neighbors	3.61	0.00
(12) Confidence to rely on neighbors for help	0.00	0.15
(13) Frequency of taking part in neighborhood fire preventive measures	0.38	1.81
(14) Frequency of taking part in neighborhood typhoon preventive measures	0.12	0.02
Quality of Life		
(15) Frequency of family outings	0.11	0.39
(16) Frequency of family discussions	0.05	0.68
(17) Existence of family saving plans	0.84	0.23
(18) No. of children preferred for a young couple	0.28	0.01
(19) Respondent comparing family life between time of interview and half a year ago	0.08	0.06

		Chi Square Value	
		Control Group	Experimental Group
(20)	Knowledge of local recreational facilities	0.01	2.67
(21)	Frequency of taking part in leisure activities	1.32	0.24
(22)	Children's leisure activities in relation to their school work	0.08	0.01
(23)	Children's leisure activities in relation to their future career	0.31	0.06
(24)	Children's leisure activities in relation to their social skills development	0.00	0.50
(25)	Perception of community problems	1.13	0.06
(26)	Perception of the change in living environment	0.05	0.06
(27)	Knowledge of non-formal educational facilities	0.07	3.05
(28)	Use of non-formal educational facilities	0.01	1.66
(29)	Expectation on the educational attainment of a male youth	0.59	0.37
(30)	Expectation on the educational attainment of a female youth	0.34	2.31
(31)	Sex difference in relation to expectations on educational attainment for female and male youth	0.00	0.25
(32)	Frequency of talking to teachers about children's performance	0.04	0.50
	Community Identity		
(33)	Respondent's feeling when being labelled as "Tai O People"	0.05	0.00
(34)	Choice of a residential community	0.01	0.00
(35)	A community for the younger generation	0.18	0.08
	Citizen Participation		
(36)	Frequency of participation in local social activities	0.11	0.06
(37)	Membership of local organizations	0.03	0.10
(38)	Level of knowledge of government programmes	0.22	2.94
(39)	Frequency of expressing opinion on government policies	0.01	0.15

		Chi Square Value	
		Control Group	Experimental Group
(40)	Frequency of encouraging other residents as a group to express their opinion on government policies	0.21	0.15
Civic Responsibility			
(41)	Community improvement should not ask for any money or time from residents	0.31	0.49
(42)	Residents should not bear any responsibility for the dirtiness of the community	0.36	0.21
(43)	Would keep quiet to avoid trouble	0.04	0.83
(44)	There was no need to help organize community activities	0.17	0.26
(45)	Community problems can easily be solved by few leaders alone	0.04	0.57

None of the chi square tests was significant at the 0.05 level of significance.

(b) Discussions of findings:

(i) It was found that, for all the outcome indicators used, no significant difference was recorded for the baseline and second measurements of the control group and that of the experimental group.

(ii) In order to prove the causal relationship between the Tai O Project and the project outcome, a quasi-experimental design was utilized to control external and internal intervening variables. In this study, external intervening variabled were controlled by the method of longitudinal measurements. Findings in Chapter VI have also shown that the control and experimental

groups were well matched in terms of sex, age, educational attainment, marital status, employment status, family income, family type and years of residence. Therefore the effects of possible intervening variables on the causal relationship between the Tai O Project and the project outcome were well under control. In this section, the baseline measurement and second measurement of the outcome variables were compared. The findings showed that there was no significant difference for both the experimental and control groups. The project, therefore, had no initial impact on the community as far as the outcome variables were concerned. It can be concluded that the Tai O Grassroots Community Development Project, at its initial period of implementation, was not effective in relation to the following five goals: to promote neighborliness, quality of life, community identity, citizen participation and civic responsibility. This conclusion was, however, affected by the following limitations: (i) the contamination of the control group; (ii) the reliability and validity of the measuring indicators were yet to be tested. These limitations are elaborated in the last section of this chapter.

Implications for community development practice

(i) The use of quasi-experimental design with longitudinal measurements: Considering the virtually open conditions under which a community development project is being operated, the use of a control group clearly serves to raise the confidence in determining the causal relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

(ii) The feasibility of the evaluative research design and recommendations for action: It is true that the expertise and administrative cost of adopting research logics to evaluation are sometimes beyond the resources of most individual voluntary agencies. There is, however, a high possibility that the problem can be solved through joint efforts of concerned agencies. The problem involved at least three major issues which will be tackled below:

(a) the availability of a good control group: as mentioned in preceding chapters, control group could be available in the servicing communities without creating too serious ethical and methodological problems. This is because the size of a community is often large enough to allow for stages of implementation, extending from a small protion to the entire population. The high degree of homogeneity often found in communities belonging to the lower class would also raise the power of control for intervening variables.

(b) the availability of expertise: expertise for evaluation could be developed through concerted efforts between concerned agencies and the Community Development Division of the Hong Kong Council of Social Service. Recently, the Community Development Division has already indicated its interest in this area by setting up a special committee on community development evaluation. One possible solution to develop evaluation expertise is for the Community Development Division to set up training programmes on evaluation research for agency staff. Finance of the training programme could come from participating agency, and instructors could be requested from experts in the field. This suggestion is considered feasible because the Community Development Division has already had experience in organizing training programmes,[48] and research experts also have indicated their willingness to help.[49] Besides, the Research and Evaluation Department of the Hong Kong Council of Social Service, which has recently ventured into computer applications, could well contrinute its resources to this training programme.

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[48]See Hong Kong Council of Social Service, "Annual Report, 1976/77".

[49]Hong Kong Council of Social Service, Research Advisory Committee, "Seminar on Social Programme Evaluation, 1975". (Mimeographed)

(c) the availability of manpower and resources: Since it is highly impractical for most agencies to have separate evaluation staff because of financial constraints, it is recommended that programme staff could be trained to take up evaluative research tasks. Some may argue about the reliability of such a practice, but debates around this issue are still far from conclusive.[50] In this case, practical considerations should be given a priority attention. As to the interviewing manpower, assistance could be sought from voluntary groups such as post-secondary students. If necessary, programme staff from other projects of the same agency could be mobilized on an ad hoc basis to conduct data collection. This was in fact the practice of the present study and was found feasible.

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[50]See Carol H. Weiss, "Interviewing in Evaluation Research," in Handbook of Evaluation Research, eds. Elmer L. Struening & Marcia Guttentag (London: Sage Publications, Inc., 1975), pp. 355-398.

(iii) The need for more sophisticated measuring instruments: The experience of the present exercise suggests that sets of indicator with varying degree of sophistication for communities of different backgrounds are needed. The indicators to measure community identity as used by this study, for instance, were found not satisfactory because there was already a high proportion of respondents' answers classified under the indicator categories associated with a high degree of community identity. These indicators were therefore considered not sensitive to measure the changes in community identity in that particular community. The weaknesses of the indicators revealed yet another phenomenon that local research on this subject is still not well developed. It is suggested that the evaluation committee of the Community Development Division of the Hong Kong Council of Social Service to take up the role of mobilizing experienced field workers and research experts to work out various sets of measuring indicators. These indicators can be tested by project staff, who will then return feedback to the Community Development Division for revision and modification.

Limitations of the study

(A) The conclusion of this study was affected by the following limitations:

(i) There was the problem of contamination since some residents from the control section had taken part in a few programme functions. Although the effect was not considered

significant, it might still affect the explanatory power of the quasi-experimental design.

(ii) The reliability and validity of the indicators used to measure the outcome component are yet to be tested. It was already shown that several indicators to measure outcome changes were considered insensitive. These indicators were: (1) neighborliness: proportions of families of the section known to the respondent, frequency of taking care of neighbors' children, confidence to rely on neighbors for help; (2) community identity: the choice of a residential community, a community for the younger generation. The reason that these indicators were considered insensitive for the Tai O community was because at the baseline measurement there were already very high proportions of responses recorded in indicator categories associated with high degree of neighborliness or high degree of community identity. As far as these indicators are concerned, the result of no significant difference between the baseline and second measurements might be an indication of their insensitivity rather than an indication of the ineffectiveness of the Tai O Project.

(B) The indicators used to document the output component covered only the quantitative aspects. They could not show the quality of the workdone, or the degree of complexities of the tasks. Therefore the description of the output component was not complete.

(C) In order to analyse the community development practice adopted by the Tai O Project, the present study worked out a theorectical construct. This theorectical construct assumed a correlation between the incremental change function and concurrence strategy, and a correlation between the radical change function and contest strategy. This assumption was derived from general observations rather than from empirical research studies. The validity of this theorectical construct, therefore, has yet to be tested.

APPENDIX 1

THE INTERVIEWING SCHEDULE (IN CHINESE)

大沃人民生活问卷

介绍：

_____ (稱呼)，我係基督教女青年会嘅訪問員，我姓 _____。

基督教女青年会係一個社会福利团体，係吉庆街62号有一個办事处。現時女青年会想为大沃居民提供一個社区发展服務。为咗使服務更能符合区内嘅需要，希望你能夠为我哋提供一D有关本区居民嘅生活情况。你所講嘅嘢，我哋会保守秘密嘅。

這個訪問大约需要半小時，可以吗？

你喜欢我点样稱呼你呢！ _____

地址：_____

第一次探訪	第二次探訪
探訪日期	
探訪時間	
結果	

訪問員姓名：_____

問卷编号：

首先，請你講吓你对呢区嘅教育，居住环境嘅意見。

(1) 你認为普通嘅一个大块青年，男仔，要读到幾年级先至叫做夠呢？

1. (　) 小六或以下
2. (　) 中一至中三
3. (　) 中六或以上
5. (　) 無意見

(2) 你認为普通嘅一个大块青年，女仔，要读到幾年级先至叫做夠呢？

（同题 1）

(3) 你覺到呢区嘅学校教唔教得好D细路呢？

1. (　) 教得好
2. (　) 麻麻
3. (　) 教得唔好
4. (　) 冇意見

再問：有D乜嘢唔好呢？

（註：此题答案文中没有分析）

(4) （此题不適用於没有仔女读書嘅家庭，如是，填不適合项）
你或者家人多唔多同学校先生傾细路係学校或者係屋企嘅读書情形或行为呢？

1. (　) 很多；　2. (　) 間中；　3. (　) 很少
4. (　) 冇；　5. (　) 不適合。

(5) 区仂中一至中三嘅学位够唔够嘅呢？

1. (　) 够

2. (　) 唔够→再问：有冇解决办法呢？

1. (　) 冇

2. (　) 有：_____

3. (　) 不知道

(註：此题答案内文没有分析)

(6) 你知唔知係区内，除咗小学或中学之外，重有边D地方係日间或者係晚上教人学嘢嘅呢？

1. (　) 唔知

2. (　) 知→再问 i) 係D乜嘢地方呢？_____

ii) 你有冇係个D地方学过嘢呢？

a. (　) 冇；b. (　) 有。

(7) _____(稱呼)，現時請你講吓区内嘅消遣或娛樂活動。得閒嘅時候，你有D乜嘢消遣呢？

_____

(註：此题答案内文没有分析)

(8) 除咗係屋企睇电视，听收音机，做手作之外，你其他嘅消遣活動多唔多呢？

1. (　) 很多；2. (　) 間中；3. (　) 很少；

4. (　) 冇。

(9) 你知唔知区内有边D地方係老人家、青年、成人或细路玩嘅呀?

1. ( ) 唔知

2. ( ) 知 → i/ 係边D呢? _____

ii/ 你有冇係呢D地方玩过呢?

a. ( ) 有; b. ( ) 冇

(10) 跟鄰舍比較, 你覺得你嘅消遣或娛樂活動有冇唔同呀?

1. ( ) 冇

2. ( ) 有 → 再问: i/ 係好啲定唔好啲呢?

a. ( ) 好啲; b. ( ) 唔好啲

(註: 此題答案内文沒有分析)

(11) 你屋企嘅细路得閒嘅時候玩D也嘢呀?

1. _____ 2. ( ) 不適用, 家裏沒有兒童.

(12) 你覺得你家细路玩嘅嘢对佢哋讀書有冇幫助呀?

1. ( ) 有; 2. ( ) 冇;

3. ( ) 不適用, 家裏沒有兒童

(13) 你覺得你家细路玩嘅嘢对佢哋学做事有冇幫助呀?

(同题 12.)

(14) 你覺得你家细路玩嘅嘢对佢哋待人接物有冇幫助呢?

(同题 12.)

(15) 跟半年前比較，你家細路幼呢嘢有冇乜嘢唔同呢？

1. (　) 冇
2. (　) 有 → 係好咗定唔好咗？
   i. (　) 好咗；ii. (　) 唔好咗。
3. (　) 不適用

(註：此題答案內文沒有分析)

(16) 跟半年前比較，你呢居住環境有冇乜嘢唔同呢？

1. (　) 冇
2. (　) 有 → 係好咗定唔好咗呢？
   i/ (　) 好咗；ii/ 唔好咗 (　)

(17) 你認為區內有乜嘢問題呢？

---

(18) 如認為有問題，再問：呢D問題有冇解決方法呢？

1. (　) 冇
2. (　) 有 → 乜嘢方法呢？

---

(19) _____（稱呼），現時請你講吓区内嘅隣里关係。
係呢个_____（区的名稱），你大約識得幾多成嘅人哦？識得係指你能夠叫出佢哋嘅姓名/別名和職業？（可提示）
1.（ ）3/4 以上； 2.（ ）3/4 - 1/2 ； 3.（ ）1/2 以下至 1/4
4.（ ）1/4 以下。

(20) 你曾经入过幾多个隣居嘅屋企坐呢？
（同題 19）

(21) 隣居嘅细路入你屋企坐或玩多唔多呢？
1.（ ）好多； 2.（ ）間中； 3.（ ）好少
4.（ ）有
（註：此題答案由文未有分析）

(22) 你滿唔滿意你屋企嘅细路同隣居嘅细路玩呢？
1.（ ）滿意； 2.（ ）有意见； 3.（ ）唔滿意；
4.（ ）不適用，家裏没有细路。
（註：此題答案由文没有分析）

(23) 你唔多得你以下嘅嘢講係相熟街坊知呢？

	很多	間中	很少	有	不適用
1. 细路嘅未来計劃，例如升学或就業	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. 增加家庭收入嘅計劃	( )	( )	( )	( )	
3. 家裏嘅問題	( )	( )	( )	( )	
4. 家裏開心嘅嘢	( )	( )	( )	( )	

(24) 係过去三个月来，你多唔多同其他街坊一齐参加以下嘅活动呢？

	很多	间中	很少	有
1. 打麻雀，十五胡	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. 饮早茶/下午茶	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. 一起买餸送	( )	( )	( )	( )

(25) 你同埋隔居一齐做下列嘅事多唔多呢？

1. 防风措施	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. 防火措施	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. 清洁区内嘅环境	( )	( )	( )	( )

(26) 係你同埋隔居之间，多唔多做下列嘅事呢？

1. 当你嘅隔居有紧要事或病咗，由你暂时帮手煮餐饭或打理家务	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. 当你嘅隔居有紧要事或病咗，由你帮手买日常用品/买餸送	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. 当佢哋有经济困难时借钱俾佢哋	( )	( )	( )	( )

(27) 当你有困难时，你嘅隔居会唔会好似刚才咁讲一样帮你呢？

1. (　　) 唔会；2. (　　) 会；3. (　　) 唔知道。

注意：題 28 至 35 只限一九七八年八月訪問用。

_____(稱呼)，而家請你講吓你哋家庭情形。

(28) 你哋係呢度住咗幾多年呢？_____ 年

題 29 至 34 答案直接填入下表。

(29) 家裏有幾多成員？ (30) 佢哋同你有乜嘢關係？
(31) 家裏各人結咗婚未？ (32) 各人的性別和年齡？
(33) 各人讀書還是做事，係边度讀/做？
(34) 各人嘅教育水平？

家庭成員與被訪者關係	性別 男	性別 女	婚姻 已婚	婚姻 其他	教育水平	職業	讀書或工作地點 本區	讀書或工作地點 其他地區	讀書或工作地點 香港
被訪者									

(35) 家庭每月嘅收入大約係幾多呢？

1. (　) HK$0-500; 2. (　) 501-1000;
3. (　) 1001-1500; 4. (　) 1501-2000;
5. (　) 2001-2500 6. (　) 2501或以上

注意：題 36. 至 39 只限一九七九年一月訪問用。
題 36 至 39 答案直接填入下表

(36) 今年幾多些？ (37) 現時讀書或做事，如做事，做边行呢？
(38) 讀过幾多年書？ (39) 结过婚未？

性別		年齡	教育水平	職業	婚姻	備註
男	女					

(40) 家裏各个大人多唔多一齐倾家庭開銷，例如幾時購買貴重物品？
1. ( ) 很多； 2. ( ) 間中；
3. ( ) 很少； 4. ( ) 冇。

(41) 家裏有冇一D为將来打算既儲蓄計劃，例如用来裝修，添置傢俬，或購置生財用具？
1. ( ) 有； 2. ( ) 冇。

(42) 家裏既青年人多唔多同父母倾佢哋既困難或計劃呢？
1. ( ) 很多； 2. ( ) 間中；
3. ( ) 很少； 4. ( ) 冇。
(註：此題答案内文沒有分析。)

(43) 家裏各人多唔多同埋一齐出外呢？
1. ( ) 很多； 2. ( ) 间中； 3. ( ) 很少； 4. ( ) 冇

(44) 跟半年前比較，你覺得你哋家庭生活有冇乜嘢變化啊！(提示)

1. (　) 好咗好多；2. (　) 好咗少少；3. (　) 冇變化；
4. (　) 唔好咗少少；5. (　) 唔好咗好多。

(45) 近年來，香港政府有冇新服務、新法例，你有冇聽過啊？(讀出來)

	有	冇	
1. 政府哋大汉、大嶼山發展計劃	(　)	(　)	
2. 九年免費教育	(　)	(　)	
3. 公共援助	(　)	(　)	
4. 傷殘津貼	(　)	(　)	
5. 高齡津貼	(　)	(　)	
6. 工人七天連續有薪假期	(　)	(　)	(註：此兩部份答案內文沒有分析。)
7. 勞工署哋學徒訓練計劃	(　)	(　)	

(46) 对於一D你特別关心哋社会服務或問題，你多唔多直接或間接話俾有关當局知啊？

1. (　) 好多；2. (　) 一般；3. (　) 好少；4. (　) 冇

(47) 你多唔多鼓勵其他街坊直接或間接將意見話俾有關當局聽啊？

1. (　) 很多；2. (　) 一般；3. (　) 很少；4. (　) 冇

(48) 你多唔多參加区內团体舉辦哋活動啊？

1. (　) 很多；2. (　) 一般；3. (　) 很少；4. (　) 冇

(49) 係唔係区内一D社团嘅会员啦?

1. ( ) 唔係; 2. ( ) 係。

(50) 當城市人叫你做「大澳人」時, 你有乜嘢感覚啦?

1. ( ) 開心, 自豪, 輕鬆
2. ( ) 唔自然, 緊張, 唔係幾好嘅感覚
3. ( ) 冇感覚

(51) 如果任你揀地方住, 你会揀边度啦? (提示)

1. ( ) 香港九龙; 2. ( ) 大澳; 3. ( ) 新界其他地方
4. ( ) 海外。

(52) 將大澳跟下边嘅地方比較, 你覚得大澳係好D, 差D或是有分別啦?

	好D	一样	差D
1. 長洲	( )	( )	( )
2. 梅窩	( )	( )	( )

(註: 此題答案内文沒有分析)

(53) 你希唔希望年輕嘅一代係大澳成家立業啦?

1. ( ) 希望; 2. ( ) 唔希望

(54) 你認为大澳將来会唔会成为你心目中嘅理想居住环境啦?

1. ( ) 会; 2. ( ) 唔会; 3. ( ) 冇意見

(註: 此題答案内文沒有分析)

(55) 你認為一对夫婦最好生幾多個仔女呢？_____

現在我讀幾個句子俾你聽，請特別留意句子嘅意思，然後請你話俾我聽你係非常同意、同意、有意見，不同意 非常不同意

(56) 任何改善区内环境嘅工作，都唔应該用居民嘅錢或時間。
非常同意 同意 有意見 不同意 非常不同意
( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

(57) 区内环境唔乾淨，居民係唔使負任何責任嘅。
( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

(58) 区内咁多人照計唔駛我去幫手搞对区有益嘅活動。
( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

(59) 只要係居民中有幾個做得事嘅头头，單靠佢哋就可以解決區内所有嘅問題。
( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

(60) 見到有人乱拋垃圾，你会唔出声，免至惹事生非。
( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

訪問到此結束，多謝你宝貴嘅意見

以下问题，只需訪問员訪问後填寫：

(61) 作答者对廣東話熟練程度：

1. (　) 对訪问有影响
2. (　) 〃　〃　〃　有輕微影响
3. (　) 〃　〃　〃　〃　嚴重　〃　〃

(62) 此題只在七八年八月訪问時填：

被訪家庭類別：

1. (　) neclear family;
2. (　) vertically and horizontally extended nuclear family;
3. (　) two or more nuclear families belong to the same generation;
4. (　) two or more nuclear families which are horizontally or vertically related to each other.

－ 完 －

APPENDIX 2

INTERVIEWING SCHEDULE
(ENGLISH TRANSLATION)

INTRODUCTION

Good morning (or other appropriate address), how do you do?

I am an interviewer from the Young Women's Christian Association. My name is _____ . Here is my identification issued by YWCA.

YWCA is a welfare organization. It is going to run a community development service in Tai O. The purpose of the present survey is to gather information about the life of the people here so as to facilitate the planning of the community development service. We guarentee that every piece of information you tell us will be kept confidential. I should be grateful if you would spare half an hour or so for this interview.
How would you like me to address you? _____

	1st call	2nd call
Date of interview		
Time of interview		
Result		
Interviewed by		

Questionnaire No.

_____(address), to begin with, please tell us your opinion toward education, living environment, and leisure activities in this community.

(1) In your opinion, what is the level of education which is supposed to be adequate for an average Tai O male youth?

1. ( ) P. 6 or below; 2. ( ) F. 1 to F. 3; 3. ( ) F. 4 to F. 5;
4. ( ) F. 6 and above; 5. ( ) no opinion.

(2) In your opinion, what is the level of education which is supposed to be adequate for an average Tai O female youth?

(Items as Question 1.)

(3) How do you feel about the schools in the community, good or not good?

1. ( ) good; 2. ( ) fair; 3. ( ) no opinion; 4. ( ) not good.

(Note: Answers to this question have not been analysed.)

(4) This question is not applicable to families with no school children. How often do you or your family members talk to school teachers about the performance of your children (or younger members of the family) in school or at home?

1. ( ) very often; 2. ( ) sometimes; 3. ( ) seldom;
4. ( ) never; 5. ( ) not applicable.

(5) Are there adequate F. 1 to F. 3 school places in the community?

1. ( ) adequate;
2. ( ) not adequate -- Are there any solutions to this problem?
_____
3. ( ) don't know.

(Note: Answers to this question have not been analysed.)

(6) Other than the primary and secondary schools, do you any of the organizations which run day time or evening time training course(s)?

1. ( ) No;
2. ( ) Yes — i/ What are these organizations?

ii/ Have you ever taken part in those training courses?

a. ( ) No; b. ( ) Yes.

(7) _____(address), please tell me something about the leisure activities. When you have spare time, what sort of leisure activities do you usually have? _____

(Note: Answers to this qeustion have not been analysed.)

(8) Other than watching TV, listening to radio, doing take-home piece rate works, how often do you take part in leisure activities?

1. ( ) very often; 2. ( ) sometimes; 3. ( ) seldom; 4. ( ) never.

(9) Do you know any places or organizations in the community where old people, adults, youth or children can spend their leisure time?

1. ( ) Don't know;
2. ( ) Yes -- i/ What are these? _____
ii/ Have you ever made use of these facilities? _____

(10) Compared to half a year ago, do you feel your leisure activities different?

1. ( ) No; 2. ( ) Yes, better; 3. ( ) Yes, worse.

(Note: Answers to this question have not been analysed.)

(11) This question is not applicable to families with no children.
What sort of leisure activities do the children in your family usually have? _____

(Note: Answers to this question have not been analysed.)

(12) Do you feel the leisure activities of the children in your family helpful to their school work?

1. ( ) Yes; 2. ( ) No; 3. ( ) Not applicable, no children.

(13) Do you feel the leisure activities of the children in your family helpful to their future career?

(Items as Question 12.)

(14) Do you feel the leisure activities of the children in your family helpful in developing their social skills?

(Items as Question 12.)

(15) Compared to half a year ago, do you feel any difference in the leisure activities of the children in your family?

1. ( ) No; 2. ( ) Yes, better; 3. ( ) Yes, worse.

(Note: Answers to this question have not been analysed.)

(16) Compared to half a year ago, do you feel your living environment different?

1. ( ) No; 2. ( ) Yes, better; 3. ( ) Yes, worse.

(17) What do you think are the problems in the community? _____

(18) If answer is yes to question 17, ask: Are there any solutions?

1. ( ) No; 2. ( ) Yes -- What are they? _____

(19) _____(address), would you say something about the neighborhood relationship here?
How many families of this section do you know, meaning those you can identify their family names or nicknames, and their occupation?

1. ( ) Over 3/4; 2. ( ) 3/4 to 1/2;
3. ( ) 1/4 to less than 1/2; 4. ( ) Below 1/4

(20) So far, how many neighborhood families have you visited?

(Items as question 19.)

(21) How often do your neighbors' children visit or play in your house?

1. ( ) very often; 2. ( ) sometimes; 3. ( ) seldom; 4. ( ) never.

(Note; Answers to this question have not been analysed.)

(22) Do you like children of your family playing with your neighbors' children?

1. ( ) Yes; 2. ( ) No; 3. ( ) No opinion; 4. ( ) Not applicable.

(Note: Answers to this question have not been analysed.)

(23) How often do you share your family affairs with your best neighbors? (Hint)

1. ( ) ver often; 2. ( ) sometimes; 3. ( ) seldom; 4. ( ) never.

A. plan(s) for children's schooling or future career;
B. plan(s) to increase family income;
C. family problems;
D. family happy events.

(24) In the past three months, how often did you and your neighbors take part together in the following activities?

A. mahjong or the like;
B. morning or afternoon tea;
C. daily food purchase;
D. going to town (Note: Answers to this part have not been analysed).

(25) How often do you and your neighbors do the following things together?

A. typhoon preventive measures;
B. fire preventive measures;
C. cleaning the community (Answers to this part have not been analysed).

(26) Between you and your neighbors, how often do the following phenomena occur?

A. When your neighors are sick or have to attend to some urgent matters, you help them take care of their children or look after their house.
B. When your neighbors are sick or have to attend to urgent matters, you help them buy daily necessities.
C. You lend money to your neighbors when they are in financial difficulties.

(27) When you have difficulties, do you think your neighbors will help you in any of the ways I have just described?

1. ( ) Yes; 2. ( ) No; 3. ( ) Don't know.

ATTENTION: QUESTIONS 28 to 35 ARE FOR AUGUST 1978 INTERVIEWS ONLY.

(28) _____(address), now I wish to ask you something about you and your family. How long have you been living here?

(29) How many family members are there?

(30) What are their relationship with you?

(31) Are they married?

(32) Their sex and age?

(33) Their occupation? Where?

(33) Their levels of education?

(34) What is the average monthly family income?

1. ( ) HK$0-500; 2. ( ) 501-1,000; 3. ( ) 1,001-1,500;
4. ( ) 1,501-2,000; 5. ( ) 2,002-2,500; 6. ( ) 2,501 & over.

ATTENTION: QUESTIONS 36 to 39 ARE FOR JANUARY 1979 INTERVIEWS ONLY.

(36) Your age and sex?

(37) Occupation?

(38) Levels of education?

(39) Marital status?

(40) How often do grown-ups of your family sit together discussing family budgets, such as budgets for expensive articles or furniture?

1. ( ) very often; 2. ( ) sometimes; 3. ( ) seldom; 4. ( ) never.

(41) Does your family have any saving plans, e.g. to save up for your children's future education, or for buying income-generating equipment?

1. ( ) Yes; 2. ( ) No.

(42) In your family, how often do young people talk to their parents about their plans or problems?

(Note: Answers to this question have not been analysed.)

(43) How often do you have family outings?

1. ( ) very often; 2. ( ) sometimes; 3. ( ) seldom; 4. ( ) never.

(44) Compared to half a year ago, do you feel your family life different (hint) ?
1. ( ) much better; 2. ( ) better; 3. ( ) the same;
4. ( ) worse; 5. ( ) much worse.

(45) In recent years, there have been some new legislations and government plans. Have you heard of the following provisions or plans?

	Yes	No
A. The redevelopment plan of Tai O and Tai Yu San;		
B. Nine-year free education;		
C. Public assistance scheme;		
D. Disability allowance;		
E. Old age allowance;		
F. Seven days paid annual leave for workers) (Note: Answers to these two		
G. Labour Department's apprenticeship scheme) parts have not been analysed.)		

(46) How often do you express directly or indirectly your opinion on those government programmes or legislations that your are most concerned with to authorities concerned?

1. ( ) very often; 2. ( ) sometimes; 3. ( ) seldom; 4. ( ) never.

(47) How often do you encourage other residents as a group to express their opinion to authorities concerned?

(48) How often do you take part in activities organised by local organizations?

(49) Are you a member of a ny of the organizations in the community?

1. ( ) Yes; 2. ( ) No.

(50) When people from city call you 'Tai O people', how would you feel (hint) ?

1. ( ) pleasant feeling; 2. ( ) unpleasant feeling;
3. ( ) no particular feeling.

(51) If you could choose any place to live, where would you go?

1. ( ) H.K. or Kowloon; 2. ( ) Tai O; 3. ( ) Other places in N. T.;
4. ( ) overseas.

(52) Compared Tai O with the following two places, is it better, the same or worse: Cheung Chau, Silver Mine Bay?

(Note: Answers to this question have not been analysed.)

(53) Do you wish the younger generation to establish their career and have their families in Tai O?

1. ( ) Yes; 2. ( ) No.

(54) Do you think Tai O will one day become your ideal living environment?

1. ( ) Yes; 2. ( ) No; 3. ( ) No opinion.

(Note: Answers to this question have not been analysed.)

(55) In your opinion, what is the best number of children for a couple?

Now I shall read to you a few sentences. Pay special attention to the meaning of these sentences. Then tell me how much you agree with its meaning. You may use any one of the adjectives in the following continuum you think most appropriate:

Strongly agree Agree No Idea Disagree Strongly Disagree

(56) Any work to improve community environment should not ask for residents' money or time.

(57) Residents should not bear any responsibility for the dirtiness of the community.

(58) There is no reason for me to help organize community activities because there are other residents available.

(59) Community problems can easily be solved by a few capable leaders alone.

(60) I would keep quiet to avoid trouble if I spotted someone littering.

_____(address), we have come to the end of the interview. Thanks very much for your valuable ideas.

The following questions are to be filled in by interviewers after each interview.

(61) Respondent's proficiency in Cantonese:

1. ( ) has no effect on the interview;
2. ( ) has little effect on the interview;
3. ( ) has serious effects on the interview.

(62) This question is for August 1978 interviews only.
The nature of respondent's family is:

1. ( ) nuclear family;
2. ( ) vertically and horizontally extended nuclear family;
3. ( ) two or more nuclear families belong to the same generation;
4. ( ) two or more nuclear families which are horizontally or vertically related to each other.

- END -

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